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**Correlation of RP-1 fuel properties with chemical composition  
using comprehensive two-dimensional gas chromatography with time-of-flight mass spectrometry  
followed by partial least squares regression analysis**

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## Abstract

There is an increased need to more fully assess and control the composition of kerosene-based rocket propulsion fuels such as RP-1. In particular, it is critical to make better quantitative connections among the following three attributes: fuel performance (thermal stability, sooting propensity, engine specific impulse, etc.), fuel properties (such as flash point, density, kinematic viscosity, net heat of combustion, hydrogen content, etc.), and the chemical composition of a given fuel, i.e., amounts of specific chemical compounds and chemical groups present in a fuel as a result of feedstock blending and/or processing. Recent efforts in predicting fuel chemical and physical behavior through modeling put greater emphasis on attaining detailed and accurate fuel properties and fuel composition information. Often, one-dimensional gas chromatography (GC) combined with mass spectrometry (MS) is employed to provide chemical composition information. Building on approaches that make use of GC-MS, but to glean substantially more chemical composition information from these complex fuels, we have recently studied the use of comprehensive two dimensional (2D) gas chromatography combined with time-of-flight mass spectrometry ( $GC \times GC - TOFMS$ ) using a “reversed column” format: RTX-wax column for the first dimension, and a RTX-1 column for the second dimension. In this report, by applying chemometric data analysis, specifically partial least-squares (PLS) regression analysis, we are able to readily model (and correlate) the chemical compositional information provided by use of  $GC \times GC - TOFMS$  to RP-1 fuel property information such as density, kinematic viscosity, net heat of combustion, hydrogen content, and so on. Furthermore, we readily identified compounds that contribute significantly to measured differences in fuel properties based on results from the PLS models. We anticipate this new chemical analysis strategy will have broad implications for the development of high fidelity composition-property models, leading to an improved approach to fuel formulation and specification for advanced engine cycles.

**KEYWORDS:**  $GC \times GC - TOFMS$ , PLS, Chemometrics, Gas Chromatography, RP-1, Kerosene.

## 1. Introduction

The chemical composition of a kerosene fuel is complex, and changes in composition have been widely demonstrated to impact fuel properties and performance [1-4]. However, achieving precise control over the chemical composition of distillate fuels such as RP-1 (MIL-DTL-25576E) is challenging due to variations in crude oil composition and place of origin, refinery and post-refinery operating conditions, or even the date and time the material was refined, treated, and formulated to meet the detail specification requirements. A better understanding of fuel composition and how it relates to fuel performance and properties is expedient for a number of reasons. Indeed, it has become increasingly important to gain a better understanding of fuel composition, and an assessment of the potential sources of fuel composition variation is paramount to maintain control of fuel performance [5-11]. It is also beneficial to relate new chemical analysis technologies to the benchmarking ASTM methods for characterizing properties and compositions of fuels such as RP-1. For such assessments, it is often beneficial to evaluate special laboratory blends (where the analyst has some control over the chemical composition, see Table 1) as well as to assess the performance of “field” fuels [5-9].

Gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (GC-MS) is an established workhorse tool of the chemical analysis laboratory. GC is ideally suited to the separation of complex samples such as multi-component hydrocarbon fuels [7, 8, 12, 13], because GC has the ability to spatially separate a large number of chemical compounds. Adding MS for detection provides a substantial increase in the chemical selectivity of this instrumental platform. GC-MS has proven itself as a powerful tool for the study of the chemical composition of fuels [5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 14]. Nevertheless, GC-MS can be made substantially more powerful by adding another dimension of separation, that is, by performing comprehensive two-dimensional (2D) gas chromatography prior to time-of-flight mass spectrometry detection (GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS) [15-23]. The added dimension of separation provides a substantial

improvement in chemical selectivity relative to GC-MS. Although the TOFMS provides unit mass resolution, GC  $\times$  GC allows for detailed analyses with reasonable file sizes and manageable data analyses. GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS is well suited for the analysis of complex mixtures of volatile (and/or semi-volatile) compounds, such as are present in fuels [15-17, 19-24]. The GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS instrument produces data consisting of a complete mass spectrum collected at each detection sampling point of a 2D separation. The 2D separation provides temporal separation for each analyte compound peak from the peaks of most of the other compounds in the mixture, while imposing a patterned structure formed by the retention times at which peaks for different related compounds appear, which depends on the separation conditions.

With GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS, a 2D separation is commonly produced with the first separation dimension performed using a non-polar stationary phase column and a separation run time of 30 to 60 minutes [15, 16, 24]. In the second dimension, a polar stationary phase column is commonly used, providing a complementary separation relative to the first column, so chemical compounds not separated on the first dimension at a given retention time have the opportunity to be separated on the second dimension. However, for the study of RP-1 fuels, which contain primarily *n*-alkanes, *iso*-alkanes, cyclic alkanes, and aromatics, it was deemed necessary to apply a “reversed column” GC  $\times$  GC format in order to provide good selectivity [25], with the first dimension separation using a polar phase (RTX-wax) and the second dimension separation using a non-polar phase (RTX-1). The TOFMS detects analyte compounds as they leave the second column. Each analyte produces a chromatographic peak in the second dimension with a width on the order of  $\sim 100$  ms. The mass spectral acquisition rate for the TOFMS used for this report is 500 Hz with an  $m/z$  range of 5 - 1000, yielding  $\sim 50$  spectra per second dimension peak. For most GC-based fuel studies, however, an  $m/z$  range of 40 – 400  $m/z$  is sufficient. Thus, GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS provides a considerable amount of data for a given complex sample (e.g.,

typically ~ 300 to 400 MB compressed per sample run). It has become clear that there are also significant challenges to readily glean useful information from this significant amount of data, which is why powerful chemometric software methods are used for analysis [15-24, 26-28].

Even though GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS is a powerful instrumental platform for fuels analysis, it is critical to develop and apply data analysis software that can readily convert the immense data into readily interpretable and useful information. For this purpose, multivariate data analysis methods have been developed, broadly referred to as “chemometrics”. Chemometric data analysis is ideally suited for analyzing and to reveal similarities and/or differences between sets of GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data [15-17, 20-22, 28]. Specific to this study, the chemometric method partial least-squares (PLS) regression analysis was used to associate differences in measurable information for each fuel sample, in this case chemical and physical property data, to chemical composition differences in a corresponding set of fuel samples. Details on the theory of PLS can be found elsewhere [29-31]. Briefly, PLS analyzes two data matrices (X-block and Y-block, respectively) and calculates orthogonal components similar to principal components (PCs) in principal component analysis (PCA), except that the PCs in the X-block have a maximum covariance with their respective PCs in the Y-block. In other words, PC1 in the X-block would have maximum covariance with PC1 of Y-block, and so on. To make the distinction, the “PCs” in PLS are commonly known as Latent Variables (LVs). Using PLS, models can be constructed to account for variance (ideally, the relevant chemical differences) in both the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data (which constitute the X-block) and the respective measured property values (which constitute the Y-block). These variances are also correlated to determine what differences in the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data account for differences in the measured property values. It is important to examine how well the predicted values provided by the PLS model match the measured value properties, as this is a good indication of the quality of the model (i.e., if variance has been captured that accounts for the change in

the measured variables). Moreover, validating the models is also important. Herein, validation was performed using a second set of replicates to test the predictive ability of the model.

In this study, we sought to demonstrate the potential of the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS instrumental platform, combined with chemometric data analysis, to provide useful information in the chemical analysis of RP-1 samples. By doing so, our goals were to demonstrate the feasibility of being able to (1) build PLS models that relate chemical composition data obtained from the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS to measured fuel performance quantities (e.g., density, kinematic viscosity, net heat of combustion, hydrogen content, and so on), and then to (2) use those models for subsequent prediction of fuel chemical and physical characteristics without making direct measurements. Eventually, this chemical analysis approach will provide insight into addressing (3) the overall goal of optimizing fuel composition to meet desired fuel property and performance characteristics. To begin to address these goals by use of GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS with chemometric data analysis, a key focus is to be able to elucidate chemical compounds or classes of compounds responsible for observed differences between fuels (e.g. type, feedstock) or differences in their measured physical properties. Specifically we report the use of GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS with PLS to model and predict measured fuel properties (density, hydrogen content, kinematic viscosity, net heat of combustion) [6].

## **2. Experimental**

Several RP-1 fuel samples were obtained from the Air Force Research Laboratory (AFRL), most of which have been studied in prior reports [5, 6]. The list of RP-1 fuels used can be found in Table 1. All chromatographic data was obtained using the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS consisting of an Agilent 6890N GC (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA), a thermal modulator (4D upgrade, LECO, St. Joseph, MI, USA), and a Pegasus III TOFMS (LECO, St. Joseph, MI, USA). Aliquots of RP-1 fuel samples were introduced to the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS instrument via a 7683B auto-injector (Agilent Technologies,

Palo Alto, CA, USA). The following experimental conditions were applied. The auto-injector was set to a 1  $\mu$ l injection, using a 200:1 split injection with helium carrier gas. Acetone was used for the solvent rinse. Isobaric mode was used with an inlet pressure of 35 psig (241 kPa). The GC oven initial temperature was set to 40 °C for 2 min and ramped to 225 °C at a rate of 6 °C/min where the final temperature was maintained for 3 min. The GC inlet temperature was set to 225 °C and the transfer line temperature was set to 235 °C. The thermal modulator offset was 20 °C, with a hot pulse time of 0.59 s and a cool time of 0.35 s. The primary column (first separation dimension) for the GC  $\times$  GC used a RTX-wax (polar) stationary phase: 30 m length, 250  $\mu$ m i.d., and 0.5  $\mu$ m film thickness. The modulation period was set to 2.5 s (i.e. the secondary column separation time). The secondary column (second separation dimension) used a RTX-1 (non-polar) stationary phase: 1.2 m length, 100  $\mu$ m i.d., and 0.18  $\mu$ m film thickness. The secondary column oven temperature control was not applied, so the secondary column oven was open and at the same nominal temperature as the primary column oven. The mass spectrometer electron energy was set to -70 eV and the detector voltage was set to 1600 V. The ion source temperature was set at 225 °C. The data acquisition parameters were set with a 120 s acquisition delay,  $m/z$  scan range of 35-334, and acquisition rate set of 100 Hz.

There were two GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS chromatographic data replicates collected for each RP-1 sample, one set of replicates was used for constructing the PLS models while the other set of replicates were used for validation. Chromatographic runs were imported to MATLAB2009b (MathWorks, Natick MA) using the in-house ‘peg2mat’ function [26, 27, 32] and underwent preprocessing and analysis using a combination of both in-house and commercial software. PLS analysis was initially performed using PLS Toolbox 6.02 (Eigenvector Research Inc., Wenatchee WA, USA), and subsequent data analysis work was performed using PLS Toolbox 6.7. Once the data was in the MATLAB workspace, it underwent baseline correction using in-house software. To help save memory and computation time, the



data underwent a condensing procedure. First, data-point summation or binning was performed; every two points (i.e. data pixels) were added together along both separation dimensions, leading to a 4-fold reduction in the size of the data set. Next,  $m/z$  channels that exhibited insufficient signal at any time during the chromatographic run were omitted (i.e., signal below a user-specified threshold). Finally, chromatographic regions that contained no peaks, i.e. only contained noise at all  $m/z$  were omitted. All of these preprocessing steps contributed to reducing noise from being introduced into the PLS analysis, which otherwise would adversely impact the constructed models. The 2D chromatographic and mass spectral dimensions of the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data for each sample were unfolded prior to being forwarded to PLS along with the measured RP-1 properties [23]. Many of the measured compositional and physical properties for the RP-1 fuels have been reported [5, 6]. The complete list of physical and compositional properties measured and methods used to obtain values are the following: Density (g/ml) – ASTM D4052, Kinematic Viscosity mm<sup>2</sup>/s – ASTM D445, Net Heat of Combustion (MJ/kg) – ASTM D4809, Net Heat of Combustion (MJ/l) – ASTM D4809 (density at 30°C), Hydrogen Content (weight%) – Perkin Elmer Elemental Analyzer, Model EA2400, Total Sulfur (ppm) – SCD, Sustained Boiling Temperature (°C), and Vapor Rise Temperature (°C). The following hydrocarbon type analyses (mass%) were performed using ASTM D2425: paraffins, cycloparaffins, dicycloparaffins, and tricycloparaffins. In the results reported herein, the designation “alkanes” is used in place of “paraffins”, hence alkanes, dicycloalkanes, and so on. Supplemental *n*-alkane analysis allowed further categorization, with *iso*-alkane content assumed by subtraction. Total aromatics content (mass%) was determined according to ASTM D6379. The aforementioned measured chemical and physical property data underwent auto-scaling for preprocessing prior to analysis. The constructed PLS models were tested by direct comparison with the measured property data as a means of qualitatively evaluating the models, and the PLS linear regression vectors (LRVs) were inspected to investigate the tie between the

GC × GC – TOFMS chemical information and compositional and/or physical measurements. The second set of chromatogram replicates were used in validating the PLS models by taking the inner product between the LRV and an unfolded chromatogram replicate (that was not used in the construction of the PLS model). From the validation process root mean squared error of calibration (RMSEC) and root mean squared error of prediction (RMSEP) were obtained, which are the RMSE values with respect to the predicted values used in constructing the model and the values used in validating the model, respectively [33]. Standard deviation of regression (SR) was calculated using the predicted values and the value of the fit line. The RMSEC was calculated according to [33]:

$$\text{RMSEC} = [(1/N) * \sum (y_{i,\text{cal}} - y_{i,\text{meas}})^2]^{0.5} \quad (1)$$

where  $y_{i,\text{cal}}$  is the value predicted from the PLS model for a calibration chromatogram used in building the model ( $i$ ),  $y_{i,\text{meas}}$  is the measured value for the same chromatogram,  $N$  is the number of chromatograms used in construction of the PLS model, and the summation is from  $i$  equals 1 to  $N$ . Similarly, the RMSEP was calculated [33]:

$$\text{RMSEP} = [(1/N) * \sum (y_{i,\text{pred}} - y_{i,\text{meas}})^2]^{0.5} \quad (2)$$

where  $y_{i,\text{pred}}$  is the value predicted from the second replicate chromatograms ( $i$ ). SR was calculated according to [33, 34]:

$$\text{SR} = [(1/(N-2)) * \sum (y_{i,\text{cal}} - y_{i,\text{BFL}})^2]^{0.5} \quad (3)$$

where  $y_{i,\text{BFL}}$  is the  $y_i$  value (calculated) from the best fit line. Note that two degrees of freedom are lost in fitting the line. The F-test figure-of-merit for calibration was calculated according to [33, 34]:

$$F_C = (\text{RMSEC})^2 / (\text{SR})^2 \quad (4)$$

The inverse of the F-test values was also calculated and the value greater than 1 is reported for each respective inversely related F-test pair. The closer the F-test value is to 1, the greater the confidence in the PLS model(s). Similarly, the F-test for prediction was calculated using [33, 34]:

$$F_P = (\text{RMSEP})^2/(\text{SR})^2 \quad (5)$$

The F values can be compared to the upper critical values for the F-test (for 11 and 9 degrees of freedom the 5% and 1% significance levels are estimated to be 2.90, and 4.64, respectively [35]). The reverse F-test function from PLS toolbox (Eigenvector Research Inc., Wenatchee WA, USA) was used to determine the % significance values for the lowest and highest F-test values obtained (0.2168 and 0.4808, respectively). Overall, F-test values numerically closer to 1 indicate better agreement between the values predicted from the PLS model and the measured values, in the context of the ideal 1:1 line, as defined in Eqs. (4) and (5).

Identification of analytes of interest found in the LRV in the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data was performed using ChromaTOF V.3.32 (LECO Corporation, St. Joseph, MI, USA) and in-house software for non-target PARAFAC [18] (for well resolved and badly resolved peaks, respectively), and the mass spectra for analyte compounds of interest were identified using the NIST11 V2.0g mass spectral library (National Institute of Standards and Technology, Boulder CO, USA).

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1. GC $\times$ GC separation of RP-1 using reversed column format

Using what is referred to as the reversed GC  $\times$  GC column format, with the RTX-wax column as the primary column coupled to RTX-1 column as the secondary column, we achieved an excellent 2D separation of the chemical groups in the RP-1 fuels. Figs. 1A-C show total ion current (TIC) chromatograms of three representative RP-1 fuels: LB073009-05, LB073009-09, and XC2521HW10, respectively. The TIC chromatograms of other RP-1 fuels listed in Table 1 are omitted for brevity. For the purpose of discussion, LB073009-05 will be used as benchmark reference with respect to describing, comparing and contrasting all of the RP-1 fuel samples studied in Table 1. Notably, separation patterns of closely eluting peaks were achieved, as seen in Fig. 1A. Many well resolved, closely related

compounds are separated diagonally, with each subsequent row (from left to right) pertaining to an increasing size of the compounds. With the TIC, the diagonal spread of related compounds is most easily seen in the region that has been identified and labeled as "alkanes" in Fig. 1A, in a 2D region enclosed between 1.7 to 2.5 s in the second column dimension. Directly below the alkanes are two tightly clustered chemical groups: the "cycloalkanes" group and the "di- and tri-cycloalkanes" (at around 1.5 to 1.7 s and 1.0 to 1.5 s on the second column dimension, respectively). Finally, there are two smaller chemical groups that have been labeled as "mono-aromatics" and "di-aromatics" found between 0.5 to 1.0 s on the second column dimension and between 8 and 30 min on the first column, respectively. The di-aromatics are the latest eluting compounds and appear after about 26 min along the first column dimension and between 0.5 and 1.0 s on the second column dimension. These qualitative boundaries for the chemical groups are based on the identification of specific compounds in the 2D chromatogram, as given in Table 2, as well as experience in visually interpreting chromatograms; the locations of the compounds in Table 2 and the subsequent boundaries form the chemical group template shown in Fig. 1D. The numbers noted in the figure correspond to selected compounds listed in Table 2 (for example, 1 is nonane, 11 is trimethylcyclohexane, and so on). Not all compounds identified and used in the making of the chemical group template are labeled in Fig. 1D for clarity. Furthermore, since the emphasis of this study is not the exhaustive identification of all chromatographic peaks, but rather the elucidation and identification of those compounds and classes primarily responsible for differences in measured fuel chemical and physical characteristics, we present the chemical group boundaries and compounds identified in Table 2 primarily to enable qualitative comparisons between fuels and to guide interpretation of specific compositional impacts on fuel properties resulting from PLS model analysis.

The excellent resolving power of this reversed column GC  $\times$  GC configuration for RP-1 fuels can be further emphasized by comparing a GC  $\times$  GC chromatogram to a one dimensional (1D) GC

chromatogram. To do so, the data in Fig. 1A was summed across the modulation period (second column dimension) to simulate the result of a 1D-GC separation, shown in Fig. 1E. In the GC  $\times$  GC chromatogram, the analyst can observe hundreds of peaks, with each spot corresponding to the signal from a different compound. In the 1D-GC chromatogram version of the GC  $\times$  GC chromatogram in Fig. 1E, only a fraction of these peaks are observable; the severe overlap of literally hundreds of compounds in the 1D chromatogram results in an apparent rise in baseline, which is not due to noise from a poorly calibrated instrument, but rather is from the sheer amount of signal from numerous compound peaks that are poorly resolved in only 1D. The significance of the greatly enhanced resolving power of the GC  $\times$  GC separation and the improved analytical method making use of the full chromatographic space cannot be overstated; fidelity of composition-based models for the prediction of fuel properties and performance is dependent not only on accurate property measurements but to an even greater extent on compound separation and resolution.

We now make general comparisons of the three representative RP-1 fuels in Figs. 1A-C, to provide insight into the types of variations that are readily observed with the fuels in Table 1. Upon inspection of the GC  $\times$  GC chromatogram of LB073009-09 shown in Fig. 1B there are some significant differences with respect to the benchmark chromatogram of LB073009-05 in Fig. 1A. The most noticeable features are the mere traces of mono-aromatics present around 20 min and a lack of peaks at the enclosed location of the di-aromatics group. Also for LB073009-09, with respect to the alkane groups, the peaks at the 20 min mark are generally lower in concentration, and there is a lack of the later eluting alkanes beyond the 21 min mark. Moreover, large peaks that appear in the alkane group at around 2 s in the second column dimension also are generally not present with LB073009-09. With respect to the cycloalkanes group, many of the peaks eluting around 12 to 18 min are more concentrated due to the higher signal of these peaks. Moreover, there are very few analyte peaks eluting after about

23 min with LB073009-09, meaning this RP-1 sample lacks those heavier cycloalkanes present in LB073009-05. With respect to the di- and tri- cycloalkane group, analyte peaks between 14 and 19 min are more concentrated with LB073009-09, and most of the peaks have eluted by the 25 min mark. Comparing XC2521HW10 shown in Fig. 1C to the benchmark fuel LB073009-05, the differences are more subtle. The most obvious difference is that only a few peaks appear in the mono-aromatics group and none appear in the di-aromatics group in XC2521HW10. With respect to analyte peaks in the alkane group, many peaks are missing in the alkane region before 7 min.

Additional insight into the power of GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS separations is provided in Figs. 2A-C where two selective mass channels ( $m/z$  105, and 136) are more closely studied for the benchmark LB073009-05 fuel. One can see that literally hundreds of peaks are separated. Fig. 2 demonstrates the resolving power of the reversed column GC  $\times$  GC method, and demonstrates the usefulness of TOFMS in using selective mass channels to isolate and identify closely eluting analyte peaks. Fig. 2A provides the 2D separation at  $m/z$  105 of LB073009-05, where analyte peaks with signal at  $m/z$  105 emphasize the mono-aromatics and cycloalkane groups (mono-, and di- and tri-). Fig. 2B provides a close-up of Fig. 2A between 18 and 22 min on the first column dimension and 0.8 and 1.25 s on the second column dimension, indicating the exquisite 2D resolution of several closely related aromatic compounds. Fig. 2C provides a close-up of LB073009-05 at  $m/z$  136, further demonstrating the separation of analyte peaks and the identification of more analyte peaks such as adamantane (the large peak at around 15.2 min and 1.15 s). These examples illustrate the utility of TOFMS not only in the current scope of model development, but also in the precise targeting and identification of specific analytes. Resolving and identifying individual compounds in complex kerosene fuels with sufficient confidence, even utilizing the most current mass spectral databases, proves to be a daunting task with conventional (1D-GC) separation. As stated previously, with exception of the three fuels featured in Fig. 1, all GC  $\times$  GC

chromatograms are not shown for brevity. While the general descriptions of these three fuels provide a broad overview of the RP-1 fuel variation, the chemometric analysis of the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data provides a much deeper insight into the relationship between chemical composition and fuel properties, as we will report herein.

### 3.2. Chemical composition studies using PLS

The GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data were analyzed using PLS with the previously measured mass% content of the following hydrocarbon groups (using ASTM methods mentioned [5] in the Experimental section): *n*-alkanes, *iso*-alkanes, cycloalkanes, di-cycloalkanes, tri-cycloalkanes, and aromatics. The results of the PLS modeling and predicted mass% values are shown in Figs. 3A-F. A figure key, summary of the RMSE values, and F-test results for all the PLS models (compositional and physical properties) are presented in Table 3. The direct comparison between the PLS predicted mass% values and the measured mass% values was performed (as stated earlier) to qualitatively assess the PLS models: the dashed line is the 1:1 fit, representing an ideal model, while the solid line represents the fit based on the results of the PLS model. One should note that at this stage, the results of the PLS models are generally in excellent agreement with the ideal model, which will be confirmed by a rigorous statistical analysis provided herein. While the LRVs are used to draw connections between chemical groups and actual measured mass% (in these following cases, chemical group content by mass%), they were omitted for brevity. For measured chemical content, the PLS models used were 3 latent variable (LV) models. The selection process for the number of LVs includes inspecting both the predictive power of the various PLS models (using increasing number of LVs) with respect to the measured properties, and inspecting the LRVs. When the difference between two favorable PLS models are small or ambiguous, the rule of parsimony is adhered to and the model with fewer LVs is chosen.

For *n*-alkanes, the 3 LV model results are shown in Fig. 3A, with the predicted mass% values plotted relative to the measured mass% values. The model matches the measured mass% reasonably well with a slope of the best fit line of 0.9879, the RMSEC is 0.457 mass%, the RMSEP is 0.648 mass%, and the calculated SR is 0.497 mass%. Note the spread of the measured mass% values is a little over one order of magnitude. The majority of mass% values are clustered between 0.7% and 2.7% with three samples between 6.8% and 9.2%, and only one sample at 14%. Finally, the  $F_C$  value was calculated to be 1.180, well below the upper critical values (both the 5% and 1% significance levels), indicating good agreement between the values predicted from the PLS model and the measured values, in the context of the ideal 1:1 line, as defined in Eq. (4).

For *iso*-alkanes, the predicted mass% values using a 3 LV model are plotted relative to the measured mass% values in Fig. 3B. While the *iso*-alkanes have very similar mass% values for 9 out of 11 samples, making it very challenging to model using PLS, there is good agreement between the measured and predicted mass% values. The best fit line has a slope of 0.9679, the RMSEC is 0.233 mass%, and the RMSEP is 0.452 mass%, and the calculated SR is 0.257 mass%. The PLS model overpredicted by only  $\sim 1.2\%$  relative to the measured mass% values. The  $F_C$  value is 1.221; here as with the *n*-alkanes, this result indicates good agreement between the values predicted from the PLS model and the measured values, in the context of the ideal 1:1 line.

For cycloalkanes, Fig. 3C provides the 3 LV model predicted mass% values plotted relative to the measured mass% values. Note the measured mass% generally are very similar across samples, again making for a very challenging PLS model, with the mass% values tending to be clustered more between 35.1% and 38.0%. Here too, the mass% values are spread across a little over one order of magnitude, and yet the model matches the measured values extremely well. The line fit has a slope of 0.9847, the RMSEC is 0.483 mass%, the RMSEP is 1.171 mass%, and the SR is 0.529 mass%. The  $F_C$  value is



1.197, which is well below the upper critical values.

For di-cycloalkanes, the 3 LV model predicted mass% comparison to the measured mass% is shown in Fig. 3D. The mass% values span between 13.6% and 18.7%, meaning the chemical variation between any two samples is at most 5.1% with respect to the content of di-cycloalkanes. Even with this challenging situation, the PLS model provides a best fit slope of 0.9705, which is still close to the ideal slope of unity. The RMSEC is 0.251 mass%, the RMSEP is 0.355 mass%, and the calculated SR is 0.279 mass%. The  $F_C$  value is 1.236, again well below the upper critical values.

For the tri-cycloalkanes in Fig. 3E a 3 LV PLS model was used, with the predicted mass% values plotted relative to the measured mass% values. The predicted values appear to generally match well with the measured values. This was an extremely challenging case because the variation was extremely small between samples, only 1.2%, making a mass% deviation as little as 0.2% appear significant. The slope of best fit line is 0.9426. The RMSEC is 0.102 mass%, the RMSEP is 0.184 mass%, and the SR is 0.109 mass%. The F-test value is 1.144, suggesting the predicted values are nearly equivalent to the measured values.

Finally, for aromatics a 3 LV PLS model was used, and the comparison between the predicted mass% and the measured mass% is shown in Fig. 3F. Even though the fuels analyzed exhibited a bimodal distribution of aromatic content (most samples contained ~ 0.2%, with two samples containing ~ 3.6% and one sample containing 3.7%), the PLS model provides an excellent prediction of mass% relative to the measured mass% values. The best fit line is 0.9955, and RMSEC, RMSEP and SR are 0.102 mass%, 0.237 mass%, and 0.113 mass%, respectively. The  $F_C$  value is 1.217, indicating the predicted values are essentially equivalent to the measured values.

The main point of section 3.2 on chemical composition studies is to demonstrate that the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data was readily correlated, via PLS modeling, to previously collected ASTM measured

quantitative hydrocarbon type data. This in turn provides us confidence that PLS modeling of the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data would be able to address more challenging and interesting studies, specifically, correlations to physical properties with direct inference back to chemical compound identification related to physical property relationships, as are explored in the next section.

### 3.3. Physical property studies using PLS

PLS modeling was performed on several measured chemical and physical properties (hydrogen content, density, kinematic viscosity, net heat of combustion, sulfur content, sustained boiling temperature, and vapor rise temperature) with results provided in Figs. 4-8. For reference, a figure key and summary of the metrics for all the PLS models presented herein can be found in Table 3. The PLS model prediction for the designated measured properties are provided in Figs. 4-8, and the LRVs of selected properties are also provided (those include hydrogen content, density, kinematic viscosity, and net heat of combustion; the LRVs of other modeled properties were omitted for brevity). Tables 4-11 contain lists of identified compounds based on respective LRVs. Referring to the PLS (3LV) model plots of Figs. 4-8, as with the chemical compositional analysis in the previous section, the x-axis displays the measured property values and the y-axis displays the PLS model predicted values. The LRVs of PLS models offer complementary information to the values predicted by the PLS models relative to the measured results. Each LRV was imported back into the base MATLAB workspace (from PLS\_Toolbox) where it was refolded to recover the dimensions of the 2D separation.

A review of PLS modeling is provided, so the reader can better understand how the modeling relates to chemical compositional information. A linear combination of the LVs forms the LRV. By dot product multiplication of a LRV (scores vector) with a given chromatogram for a sample (X-block vector), a predicted property value (a scalar) is obtained. Thus, each intensity value for a given mass-to-charge ratio ( $m/z$ ) at a specific chromatographic time point in the LRV is a score which indicates the

contribution (sign and magnitude) of the compound(s) with respect to predicting a given property. To view the LRVs more easily, the data is refolded into a 2D separation format, with the mass spectral dimension summed, forming a LRV image similar to a 2D chromatogram. With the LRVs, we can now explore the contribution of the chemical composition with respect to the physical properties in more detail. Enclosed chemical groups (in Figs. 4B, 4C, 5B, 5C, 6B, 6C, 7B and 7C) are compared with respect to specific chemical groups in various LRV plots.

The PLS (3 LV) model predicted values plotted relative to the measured values for hydrogen content (weight%) are shown in Fig. 4A, and the LRV is shown in two parts for clarity. Fig. 4B shows the positive contributions to the LRV, while Fig. 4C shows the negative contributions. The results in Fig. 4A show the PLS model is a good fit, with a best fit line slope of 0.9401. The  $F_C$  is 1.148 (well below the upper critical values), indicating good agreement between the values predicted from the PLS model and the measured values, in the context of the ideal 1:1 line, as defined in Eq. (4). In the LRV, Figs. 4B and 4C, the aromatics (mono-, and di-) all have a negative score, meaning their contribution to the PLS model decreases the predicted hydrogen content of RP-1 fuel, which is anticipated since aromatics are not saturated in hydrogen (have a lower wt% contributed to hydrogen) relative to alkanes. The alkane group has the earlier eluting compounds predominantly contributing to increasing the hydrogen content, while most of the alkanes eluting from 15 to 25 min decrease the predicted hydrogen content, as expected. Surprisingly, some of the later eluting compounds show a weak positive contribution to the predicted value; this may be explained by the inadvertent correlation between aromatics and alkanes eluting between those time intervals, which could occur if certain materials used in the production of the fuel sample set were simultaneously abundant in particular hydrocarbon classes (e.g., aromatics and alkanes). With respect to the cycloalkanes and di- and tri- cycloalkanes groups, negative contributions for peaks are observed between 13 and 20 min with compounds outside this range

having a mild positive contribution. Identified compounds of interest (regions in the LRVs with dominating positive/negative values) are provided in Tables 4 and 5.

For the study of RP-1 density, a 3 LV PLS model was used. The comparison to the measured values as well as the LRV can be seen in Figs. 5A-C. The measured density values were relatively similar with only one value below 806 g/l, the rest were between 809 to 816 g/l. The  $F_C$  value is 1.171, within both the upper critical values at the significance levels, indicating a good fit. Inspection of the LRV shows the earlier eluting analyte peaks (before 15 min for "alkanes" and before 12 min for the rest of the chemical groups) to have negative scores, i.e., their contribution lowers the overall predicted density of the RP-1 fuels. The later eluting peaks have a positive score meaning they act to increase the RP-1 fuel predicted density. In general, the results for modeling density show that smaller more volatile compounds decrease the overall predicted density of the RP-1 fuel, while the larger, less volatile compounds tend to increase the overall predicted density of the RP-1 fuel. Overall, the aromatics are expected to have a strong positive contribution to the predicted density; however compositional correlation between alkanes (which are expected to have the most negative scores) and aromatics in this fuel sample set has apparently decreased the contributions from the aromatics seen in the LRV. Identified compounds of interest (regions in the LRVs with very large positive or negative values) are reported in Tables 6 and 7.

For the kinematic viscosity study, a 3 LV model was constructed, and the predicted values are plotted relative to the measured values as well as the LRV are provided in Fig. 6A-C. Based upon the LRVs, specific compounds were identified (and reported in Tables 8 and 9). RP-1 Kinematic viscosity values tended to fall into one of three distinct groups: low ( $\sim 4.6 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ ), medium ( $\sim 4.9 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ ), and high ( $\sim 5.25 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ ). This behavior is most likely due to specific low- or high-viscosity materials used in fuel sample preparation. The PLS model appears to model the variation adequately, though the PLS

model seems to over predict and under predict some values more than the other models. As with the other physical property models, statistical results are provided in Table 3. Ironically, the  $F_C$  is 1.096, the lowest  $F_C$  value recorded, indicating this is a very accurate model overall. The LRV for kinematic viscosity draws great similarity to the LRV for the measured density (split into positive and negative portions in Figs. 6B and 6C, though with some noticeable differences. In the positive values (LRV), there are literally no major contributions from the cyclic groups between 10 and 15 min, whereas the majority of peaks appear between 15 and 25 min. Meanwhile in the negative portion of the regression vector, there are more contributions from the alkane group, as well as significantly more peaks from the cycloalkane, and di- and -tri cycloalkane groups. As expected, smaller, more volatile compounds (in this case, eluting at around 5 to 15 min on the first column) have negative scores, therefore (according to the PLS model) contribute to lowering the RP-1 fuel kinematic viscosity, while heavier compounds eluting after 17 min have positive scores and tend to raise the RP-1 fuel overall predicted kinematic viscosity. Interestingly, the aromatic groups show little contribution. Identified compounds of interest (regions in the LRVs with dominating positive/negative values) are identified in Tables 8 and 9.

The results for the PLS model (3 LV) constructed for volume-based net heat of combustion (MJ/l) are provided in Table 3, and the predicted values are plotted relative to the measured values as well as the LRV are provided in Fig. 7A-C. Identified compounds of interest are found in Tables 10 and 11. Though the PLS model predicted net heat of combustion values Fig. 7A show a strong agreement with the measured ASTM values, with a slope of 0.9691. Once again it is important to note the scale: the data ranges from 34.47 to 34.89 MJ/l (less than 0.5 MJ/l). With net heat of combustion (MJ/l), as with many other properties studied herein, both the composition of the RP samples and the measured ASTM values are very similar, making it more challenging to model with PLS. The corresponding LRV, shown in Figures 7B and 7C, bares similarity to the LRV for the density model: In general, more volatile

analyte peaks in the compound groups (the earlier eluting peaks) in alkanes, cycloalkanes and the di- and tri- cycloalkanes to a lesser extent (before 15 min for alkanes, and before 13 min for cycloalkanes and di- and tri- cycloalkanes) show a negative contribution to the predicted net heat of combustion. The aromatics groups (both the mono- and di- groups) show a slight negative contribution. In the PLS model, the heavier analyte peaks beyond 13 min show positive contributions to the net heat of combustion, but again, this could be due to inadvertent correlations in the fuel sample set.

Other measured chemical and physical properties were also analyzed using the method described herein, including sulfur content (ppm), mass based net heat of combustion (MJ/kg), sustained boiling point temperature (°C), and vapor rise temperature (°C). Their PLS predicted results are also shown in Figs. 8A-D and their respective slopes, RMSECs, RMSEPs, SRs, and  $F_C$  values are shown in Table 3, but their LRVs and further discussion on their results are omitted for brevity.

### 3.4. PLS model validation

For the validation of the PLS models constructed from the calibration chromatograms, properties were predicted from a replicate set of chromatograms using the LRVs. A comparison of the predicted values with the corresponding measured chemical and physical property values was performed to gauge the performance of the PLS models. Specifically, the predicted values obtained from the validation process were used to calculate RMSEP and  $F_P$  values (see Eq. (5)) for the PLS models, (the list of values is given in Table 3). The  $F_P$  values range from 1.017 to 1.435 and are all below the upper critical values, giving us ample confidence in the use of the PLS models for prediction. Results for select PLS models are shown in Fig. 9. For the compositional values, the validation results from PLS models for *iso*-alkanes (Fig. 9A) appear nearly as precise as the PLS model calibration results (expected, considering run-to-run variation): the RMSEC and RMSEP are 0.233 mass% and 0.452 mass%, respectively. For tricycloalkanes (Fig. 9B), the validation results are in good agreement despite having a

noticeably greater spread of predicted values: the RMSEC and RMSEP are 0.102 mass% and 0.184 mass%, respectively. Also shown are the validation results for hydrogen content (Fig. 9C) and density (Fig. 9D), both showing very similar values with respect to the calibration results, their respective RMSEP are 0.024 wt% and 0.862 (g/l).

#### 4. Conclusions

The rocket kerosene study presented herein has demonstrated separation of the compounds in RP-1 fuel using GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS with a reversed column configuration (RTX-wax primary column coupled to a RTX-1 secondary column), followed by chemometric analysis using PLS and the identification of analyte peaks using ChromaTOF, nontarget PARAFAC, and then the NIST-MS library. The GC  $\times$  GC column configuration implemented has demonstrated the ability to resolve many analyte peaks. Moreover, the separation distinguishes not only between groups of hydrocarbon compound classes, but also between many distinct analyte compounds. PLS modeling was performed on the GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS data to analyze chemical composition with a targeted focus of drawing connections between the compounds separated in the 2D chromatograms and measured chemical and physical properties of the fuel. In spite of the fact that some chemical groups exhibited compositional correlation (likely an artifact of fuel preparation involving blending of available feed stocks) with other chemical groups for certain measured values in the PLS models, the models show excellent prediction ability for mass% composition values of hydrocarbon groups based on their GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS chromatograms.

The root mean square error values found in Table 3 (as measures of precision) can be compared to the reported uncertainty values accompanying the respective ASTM measurement methods. For example, ASTM D4052, the standard test method for density, reports precision of 0.52 g/l (reproducibility) and bias of 0.6 g/l [36]. The RMSEC of the PLS model for density was determined in our study to be 0.55 g/l, which is similar to the uncertainty in the reference method. Likewise, kinematic

viscosity as measured with ASTM D455 has a reported reproducibility of  $0.092 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$  (a value for bias was not given) [37]. In comparison, the RMSEC in the PLS model for kinematic viscosity was determined to be  $0.072 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ . Finally, the method for net heat of combustion (ASTM D4809) reports a reproducibility of  $0.324 \text{ MJ/kg}$  and a bias of  $0.089 \text{ MJ/kg}$  [38]. The RMSEC of the PLS model for net heat of combustion was determined to be only  $0.009 \text{ MJ/kg}$  in our study. Note that PLS assumes no error in the measurements given in the Y-block and that any error in those measurements would necessarily affect the error in the model.

Ideally, for chemical composition, each chemical group measurement would correspond to an exclusive chemical group showing positive scores. However, achieving such a result would require a greater collection of different fuel samples with diversity in chemical composition in order to minimize any observable correlation between chemical groups. Any observed correlation may suggest that the LRVs need to be inspected more carefully and that caution should be exercised when drawing connections between measured values and chromatographic/chemical information. Identifying compounds that contribute positively and negatively to the property in question can aid in the interpretation of LRVs by substantiating the identification of influencing hydrocarbon groups and confirming the compositional correlation between modeled fuel samples.

The F-test values overall ( $F_C$  and  $F_P$ ) are all slightly above 1, indicating good overall agreement between the measured, modeled and predicted values. Though the full analysis of the error of the PLS models is beyond the scope of this study, the use of replicate chromatograms produced similar predicted values. A more expanded investigation using temperature-dependent physical properties [39], and use of PLS to predict those values will be the subject of an upcoming future papers.



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## Figure Captions

**Fig. 1.** RP-1 GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS total ion current (TIC) chromatograms, collected using a 30 m Rtx-wax column for the first separation dimension followed by a 1.2 m Rtx-1 column for the second separation dimension at a constant inlet pressure of 35 psig (241 kPa). Chemical groups are indicated and annotated. (A) RP-1 LB073009-05. (B) RP-1 LB073009-09. (C) RP-1 XC2521HW10. (D) Template used for aforementioned group boundaries for chemical groups. Dots signify locations of identified compound peaks used in defining the group boundaries. For visualization purposes, the numbers correspond to selected analyte peaks, found in Table 2. The other dots also correspond to compounds in Table 2 but are not numbered for clarity. (E) TIC chromatogram of LB073009-05 summed on the second column dimension, simulating a 1D-GC-MS separation.

**Fig. 2.** (A) GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS chromatogram for selective ion  $m/z$  105 of RP-1 LB073009-05. (B) Magnification of selected region of (A). (C) GC  $\times$  GC – TOFMS  $m/z$  136 chromatogram of RP-1 LB073009-05, where the adamantane peak is identified.

**Fig. 3.** Comparison between the predicted hydrocarbon class values (mass%) derived from the GC  $\times$  GC-TOFMS with PLS models and the measured values obtained using their respective measured values, with the dashed line representing an ideal agreement between the predicted and measured values and the solid line representing the linear regression best fit line. (A) *n*-alkanes (ASTM D2425 with ‘*n*-alkane analysis’) using a 3 LV PLS model. (B) *iso*-alkanes (ASTM D2425) using a 3 LV PLS model. (C) cycloalkanes (ASTM D2425) using a 3 LV PLS model. (D) di-cycloalkanes (ASTM D2425) using a 3 LV PLS model. (E) tri-cycloalkanes (ASTM D2425) using a 3 LV PLS model. (F) aromatics (ASTM D6379) using a 3 LV PLS model.

**Fig. 4.** Results of the 3 LV PLS model for hydrogen content. (A) Hydrogen content (wt%) predicted values plotted relative to the measured values (Perkin Elmer Elemental Analyzer, Model EA2400). The dashed line represents an ideal agreement between the predicted and measured values and the solid line represents the linear regression best fit line. (B) Hydrogen content LRV 2D plot, positive values only. (C) Hydrogen content LRV 2D plot, negative values only.

**Fig. 5.** Results of the 3 LV PLS model for density. (A) Density (g/l) predicted values plotted relative to the measured values (ASTM D4052). The dashed line represents an ideal agreement between the predicted and measured values and the solid line represents the linear regression best fit line. (B) Density LRV, positive values only. (C) Density LRV, negative values only.

**Fig. 6.** Results of the 3 LV PLS model for kinematic viscosity. (A) Kinematic viscosity ( $\text{mm}^2/\text{s}$ ) predicted values plotted relative to the measured values (ASTM D445). The dashed line represents an ideal agreement between the predicted and measured values and the solid line represents the linear regression best fit line. (B) Kinematic viscosity LRV, positive values only. (C) Kinematic viscosity LRV, negative values only.

**Fig. 7.** Results of the 3 LV PLS model for net heat of combustion (MJ/l). (A) Net heat of combustion (MJ/l) predicted values plotted relative the measured values (ASTM D4809). The dashed line represents an ideal agreement between the predicted and measured values and the solid line represents the linear regression best fit line. (B) Kinematic viscosity LRV, positive values only. (C) Kinematic viscosity LRV, negative values only.

**Fig. 8.** Results of other 3 LV PLS models for various measured properties. The dashed line represents an ideal agreement between the predicted and measured values and the solid line represents the linear regression best fit line. (A) Net heat of combustion (MJ/kg) predicted plotted relative to the measured values (ASTM D4809). (B) Sulfur content (ppm) predicted values plotted relative to the measured values (using SCD). (C) Sustained boiling temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) predicted values plotted relative to the measured values. (D) Vapor rise temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) predicted values plotted relative to the measured values.

**Fig 9.** Validation results for selected aforementioned PLS models. (A) Validation results for the *iso*-alkanes PLS model. (B) Validation results for the tricycloalkanes PLS model. (C) Validation results for the hydrogen content PLS model. (D) Validation results for the density PLS model.

## Tables

Table 1. RP-1 Fuel Set, where the RP-1 Sample number is used herein, while the NIST and AFRL numbers are provided for reference to previous studies of interest.

RP-1 Sample	NIST Number [6]	AFRL Designation [5]
1	11	LB080409-01
2	10	LB073009-06
3	9	LB073009-08
4	8	LB080409-05
5	7	LB073009-05
6	6	LB073009-10
7	5	LB073009-01
8	4	LB073009-09
9	1	LB073009-02
10	2	LB073009-03
11	3	XC2521HW10

Table 2. Template data with the assigned number (#) used in Fig. 1D, of each representative identified compound with their retention times on column one ( $^1t_R$ ) and two ( $^2t_R$ ) in s, and mass spectral match value (MV). This information was used to define the encircled various chemical groups.

#	Compound Identification	$^1t_R$ (min)	$^2t_R$ (s)	MV	Chemical groups
1	Nonane	5.96	1.65	911	alkanes
2	Methylnonane	7.42	1.92	925	alkanes
3	Decane	8.25	1.93	950	alkanes
4	Undecane	10.83	2.03	946	alkanes
5	Dimethyldecane (or dodecane)	10.83	2.23	902	alkanes
6	Dodecane	13.5	2.06	941	alkanes
7	Tetradecane	18.63	2.04	959	alkanes
8	Pentadecane	20.92	1.95	938	alkanes
9	Hexadecane	23.167	1.91	920	alkanes
10	Pristane	24.42	2.11	921	alkanes
11	Trimethylcyclohexane	5.29	1.33	911	cycloalkanes
12	Cyclohexane, 1,1,2,3-tetramethyl-	8.58	1.53	881	cycloalkanes
13	Cyclohexane, 1,1,2,3-tetramethyl-	9.21	1.52	840	cycloalkanes
14	Cyclohexane, pentyl-	13.33	1.67	843	cycloalkanes
15	Cyclohexane, 1-methyl-4-(1-	14.38	1.70	881	cycloalkanes
16	Cyclohexane, hexyl-	16.13	1.64	901	cycloalkanes
17	Heptylcyclohexane	18.79	1.59	869	cycloalkanes
18	Cyclotetradecane	21.13	1.62	858	cycloalkanes
19	Cyclohexane, octyl-	21.29	1.60	882	cycloalkanes
20	n-Nonylcyclohexane	23.63	1.60	929	cycloalkanes
21	2-Methyloctahydropentalene	8.58	1.30	914	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
22	Bicyclo[2.2.1]heptane, trimethyl-(C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>18</sub> )	8.83	1.41	806	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
23	1H-Indene, octahydro-, cis-	11.17	1.24	930	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
24	Naphthalene, decahydro-, trans-	12.83	1.31	944	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
25	Adamantane	15	1.17	962	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
26	Naphthalene, decahydro-2,6-dimethyl-	15.04	1.47	880	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
27	2-Methyladamantane	17.25	1.19	871	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
28	Bicyclohexyl	20	1.30	890	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
29	Trans-hexamethyl-octahydro-1H-Indene (C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>28</sub> )	22.25	1.40	820	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
30	Tricyclo[4.2.2.0(2,5)]dec-7-ene, 7-butyl-	27.03	1.12	820	di- & tri-cycloalkanes
31	Toluene	9.5	0.75	952	mono-aromatics
32	Ethylbenzene	11.88	0.82	953	mono-aromatics
33	Xylene	12.08	0.82	960	mono-aromatics
34	Xylene	12.25	0.81	965	mono-aromatics
35	Xylene	13.42	0.80	957	mono-aromatics
36	Ethyl trimethyl benzene	17.21	0.91	902	mono-aromatics
37	Isobutyltoluene	17.21	0.98	914	mono-aromatics
38	Trimethylbenzene	17.5	0.84	950	mono-aromatics
39	Methyltetralin	25.83	0.87	928	mono-aromatics
40	Dimethyltetralin	27.96	0.89	915	mono-aromatics



41	Naphthalene	26.83	0.76	905	di-aromatics
42	Methyl naphthalene	29	0.78	900	di-aromatics
43	Methyl naphthalene (isomer)	29.75	0.80	902	di-aromatics
44	Dimethyl naphthalene	31.08	0.83	931	di-aromatics
45	Dimethyl naphthalene (isomer)	31.83	0.83	921	di-aromatics
46	Methyldiphenyl (methyl phenyl benzene)	33.33	0.83	909	di-aromatics
47	Trimethyl naphthalene	34.42	0.89	939	di-aromatics

Table 3. Summary of PLS model metrics for measured properties analyzed. Metrics (slope, RMSEC, RMSEP, SR,  $F_C$  and  $F_P$  values) are provided in the context of the relevant figures.

Measured Property	Figures	slope	RMSEC	RMSEP	SR	$F_C$	$F_P$
<i>n</i> -alkanes (mass%)	3A	0.9879	0.457	0.648	0.497	1.180	1.091
<i>iso</i> -alkanes (mass%)	3B	0.9679	0.233	0.452	0.257	1.221	1.102
Cycloalkanes (mass%)	3C	0.9847	0.483	1.171	0.529	1.197	1.087
Dicycloalkanes (mass%)	3D	0.9705	0.251	0.355	0.279	1.236	1.063
Tricycloalkanes (mass%)	3E	0.9426	0.102	0.184	0.109	1.144	1.327
Aromatics (mass%)	3F	0.9955	0.102	0.237	0.113	1.217	1.017
Hydrogen Content (wt%)	4A-C	0.9401	0.019	0.024	0.020	1.148	1.145
Density (g/l)	5A-C	0.9590	0.550	0.862	0.596	1.171	1.072
Kinematic Viscosity (mm <sup>2</sup> /s)	6A-C	0.9255	0.072	0.111	0.075	1.096	1.162
Net Heat of Combustion (MJ/l)	7A-C	0.9691	0.021	0.032	0.023	1.161	1.037
Net Heat of Combustion (MJ/kg)	8A	0.9542	0.009	0.013	0.010	1.178	1.435
Sulfur (ppm) by SCD	8B	0.9426	1.734	2.756	1.861	1.151	1.119
Sustained boiling temp. (°C)	8C	0.9851	0.286	0.536	0.314	1.205	1.126
Vapor rise temp. (°C)	8D	0.9661	0.410	0.650	0.525	1.640	1.149

Table 4. Major contributing compounds identified in LRVs for hydrogen content (positive) per Fig. 4B.

#	Compound Identification	<sup>1</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (min)	<sup>2</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (s)	MV	Chemical group
1	Decane (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>22</sub> )	8.25	1.98	875	alkanes
2	Undecane (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>24</sub> )	10.92	2.1	954	alkanes
3	2,6-Dimethyldecane (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>26</sub> )	10.92	2.32	910	alkanes
4	Cyclohexane, 1,2-diethyl-, cis- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	8.33	1.64	864	cycloalkanes
5	Cyclohexane, (2-methyl-1-propenyl)- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>18</sub> )	11.17	1.4	875	cycloalkanes
6	Cyclic (formula unknown)	20	1.68	750+	cycloalkanes
7	Bicyclohexyl (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>22</sub> )	20	1.34	886	di- & tri-
8	Decahydro-pentamethylnaphthalene (C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>28</sub> )	23.5	1.4	807	di- & tri-
9	no significant peak found*				mono-aromatics
10	no significant peak found				di-aromatics

\* “No significant peak found” indicates no analytes contribute significantly from that chemical group.

Table 5. Major contributing compounds identified in LRVs for hydrogen content (negative) per Fig. 4C.

#	Compound Identification	<sup>1</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (min)	<sup>2</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (s)	MV	Chemical group
1	Tridecane, 7-methyl- (C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>30</sub> )	14.75	2.38	805	alkanes
2	Tridecane (C <sub>13</sub> H <sub>28</sub> )	16.17	2.08	946	alkanes
3	Tetradecane (C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>30</sub> )	16.17	2.2	910	alkanes
4	Isobutyl-Dimethylcyclohexane (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>24</sub> )	13.58	1.74	818	cycloalkanes
5	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>24</sub> alkylated cycloalkane	14.67	1.72	750+	cycloalkanes
6	Cyclohexane, (3-methylpentyl)- (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>24</sub> )	15.17	1.68	888	cycloalkanes
7	Naphthalene, decahydro-2-methyl- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	14.75	1.42	923	di- & tri-
8	Decalin, syn-1-methyl-, cis- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	16.67	1.32	924	di- & tri-
9	Naphthalene, 1,2,3,4-tetrahydro- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>12</sub> )	22.25	0.86	957	mono-aromatics
10	Naphthalene, 1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-6-methyl- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>14</sub> )	24.58	0.9	928	mono-aromatics
11	Benzene, cyclohexyl- (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>16</sub> )	25.33	0.94	928	mono-aromatics
12	Naphthalene (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>8</sub> )	36.83	0.78	902	di-aromatics
13	Dimethylnaphthalene (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>12</sub> ) (isomer)	31.67	0.84	934	di-aromatics
14	Dimethylnaphthalene (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>12</sub> )	31.83	0.84	920	di-aromatics

Table 6. Major contributing compounds identified in LRVs for density (positive) per Fig. 5B.

#	Compound Identification	<sup>1</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (min)	<sup>2</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (s)	MV	Chemical group
1	Undecane, 2,6-dimethyl- (C <sub>13</sub> H <sub>28</sub> )	13.42	2.32	880	alkanes
2	Tridecane, 7-methyl- (C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>30</sub> )	14.75	2.38	818	alkanes
3	Dodecane, 2,6,10-trimethyl- (C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>32</sub> )	17.5	2.24	882	alkanes
4	Cyclohexane, 1-ethyl-2-propyl- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>22</sub> )	11.92	1.72	835	cycloalkanes
5	Cyclohexane, 1-methyl-4-(1-methylethyl)-, cis- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	17.08	1.72	831	cycloalkanes
6	Heptylcyclohexane (C <sub>13</sub> H <sub>26</sub> )	18.83	1.66	872	cycloalkanes
7	Naphthalene, decahydro-2-methyl- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	14.08	1.44	913	di- & tri-
8	Adamantane, dimethyl- (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	14.75	1.42	888	di- & tri-

9	Decalin, syn-1-methyl-, cis- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	16.67	1.32	819	di-&tri-
10	no significant peak found				mono-aromatics
11	no significant peak found				di-aromatics

Table 7. Major contributing compounds identified in LRVs for density (negative) per Fig. 5C.

#	Compound Identification	<sup>1</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (min)	<sup>2</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (s)	MV	Chemical group
1	Decane (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>22</sub> )	8.25	1.98	953	alkanes
2	Undecane (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>24</sub> )	10.92	2.12	842	alkanes
3	Dodecane (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>26</sub> )	10.92	2.32	864	alkanes
4	Cyclohexane, diethyl- (isomer)(C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	7.67	1.62	873	cycloalkanes
5	Cyclohexane, 1,2-diethyl-, cis- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	8.33	1.64	854	cycloalkanes
6	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>18</sub>	11.17	1.4	800+	di-&tri-
7	Xylene (C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>10</sub> )	12.25	0.82	913	mono-aromatics
8	Naphthalene, decahydro-2-methyl- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	12.33	1.48	855	di-&tri-
9	Xylene (C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>10</sub> )	13.5	0.82	957	mono-aromatics
10	no significant peak found				di-aromatics

Table 8. Major contributing compounds identified in LRVs for kinematic viscosity (positive) per Fig.

6B.

#	Compound Identification	<sup>1</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (min)	<sup>2</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (s)	MV	Chemical group
1	Tetradecane	19.5	2.01	881	alkanes
2	Tetradecane, 2-methyl-	19.88	2.01	919	alkanes
3	4-Methyltridecane	17.42	2.05	910	alkanes
4	1-Cyclohexylheptane	18.79	1.62	863	cycloalkanes
5	1-Methyl-4-(1-methylbutyl)cyclohexane (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>24</sub> )	19.63	1.68	812	cycloalkanes
6	Octylcyclohexane	21.29	1.6	880	cycloalkanes
7	alkane branched dicycloalkane (C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>28</sub> )	22.21	1.44	825	di- & tri- cycloalkanes
8	1,1'-Bicyclohexyl, 2-methyl-, cis- (C <sub>13</sub> H <sub>24</sub> )	20.83	1.36	818	di- & tri- cycloalkanes
9	Bicyclohexane	20	1.31	895	di- & tri- cycloalkanes
10	no significant peak found				mono-aromatics
11	no significant peak found				di-aromatics

Table 9. Major contributing compounds identified in LRVs for kinematic viscosity (negative) per Fig. 6C.

#	Compound Identification	<sup>1</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (min)	<sup>2</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (s)	MV	Chemical group
1	Undecane	10.88	2.06	953	alkanes
2	2,6-Dimethyldecane	10.88	2.268	914	alkanes
3	Decane	8.25	1.942	955	alkanes
4	1-Methyl-2-propylcyclohexane (C10H20)	8.92	1.65	866	cycloalkanes
5	Cyclohexane, 1-ethyl-1,3-dimethyl-, trans- (C10H20)	7.67	1.607	844	cycloalkanes
6	cis,trans-1,2,3-Trimethylcyclohexane	7.46	1.39	941	cycloalkanes
7	trans-Decahydronaphthalene (C10H18)	12.83	1.34	924	di- & tri- cycloalkanes
8	cis-octahydro-Indene (C9H16)	11.17	1.24	928	di- & tri- cycloalkanes
9	trans-octahydro-Indene (C9H16)	9.75	1.28	912	di- & tri- cycloalkanes
10	no significant peak found				mono-aromatics
11	no significant peak found				di-aromatics

Table 10. Major contributing compounds identified in LRVs for volume based net heat of combustion (MJ/l) (positive) per Fig. 7B.

#	Compound Identification	<sup>1</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (min)	<sup>2</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (s)	MV	Chemical group
1	Tridecane, methyl- (C14H30)	14.75	2.38	807	alkanes
2	2-Methyltridecane (C14H30)	17.5	2.26	925	alkanes
3	Dodecane, trimethyl- (C15H32)	19.42	2.24	856	alkanes
4	Cyclohexane, 1-methyl-4-(1-methylethyl)-, cis- (C10H20)	17.08	1.72	838	cycloalkanes
5	Cyclohexane, 1-ethyl-2-methyl-, cis- (C9H18)	17.58	1.7	817	cycloalkanes
6	Heptylcyclohexane (C13H26)	18.83	1.66	851	cycloalkanes
7	Methyldecahydronaphthalene (C11H20)	16.67	1.32	931	di-&tri-
8	2-Methyladamantane (C11H18)	17.33	1.22	870	di-&tri-
9	no significant peak found				mono-aromatics
10	no significant peak found				di-aromatics

Table 11. Major contributing compounds identified in LRVs for net heat of combustion (MJ/l) (negative) per Fig. 7C.

#	Compound Identification	<sup>1</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (min)	<sup>2</sup> t <sub>r</sub> (s)	MV	Chemical group
1	Decane isomer (C10H22)	8.25	1.98	944	alkanes
2	Undecane (C11H24)	10.92	2.12	953	alkanes

3	2,6-Dimethyldecane (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>26</sub> )	10.92	2.32	910	alkanes
4	Cyclohexane, 1-ethyl-1,3-dimethyl-, trans- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	7.67	1.62	845	cycloalkanes
5	Cyclohexane, 1,2-diethyl-, cis- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	8.33	1.64	859	cycloalkanes
6	1-Methyl-4-(1-methylethyl)-cyclohexane (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	8.92	1.7	882	cycloalkanes
7	Cyclohexane, (2-methyl-1-propenyl)- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>18</sub> )	11.17	1.4	863	cycloalkanes
8	Naphthalene, decahydro-2-methyl- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>20</sub> )	14.08	1.42	929	di- & tri-
9	Xylene (C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>10</sub> )	12.25	0.82	962	mono-aromatics
10	Naphthalene, 1,2,3,4-tetrahydro- (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>12</sub> )	22.25	0.86	960	mono-aromatics
11	Naphthalene, 2-methyl- (C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>10</sub> )	29.08	0.82	903	di-aromatics
12	2,6-Dimethylnaphthalene (C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>12</sub> )	31.83	0.84	920	di-aromatics

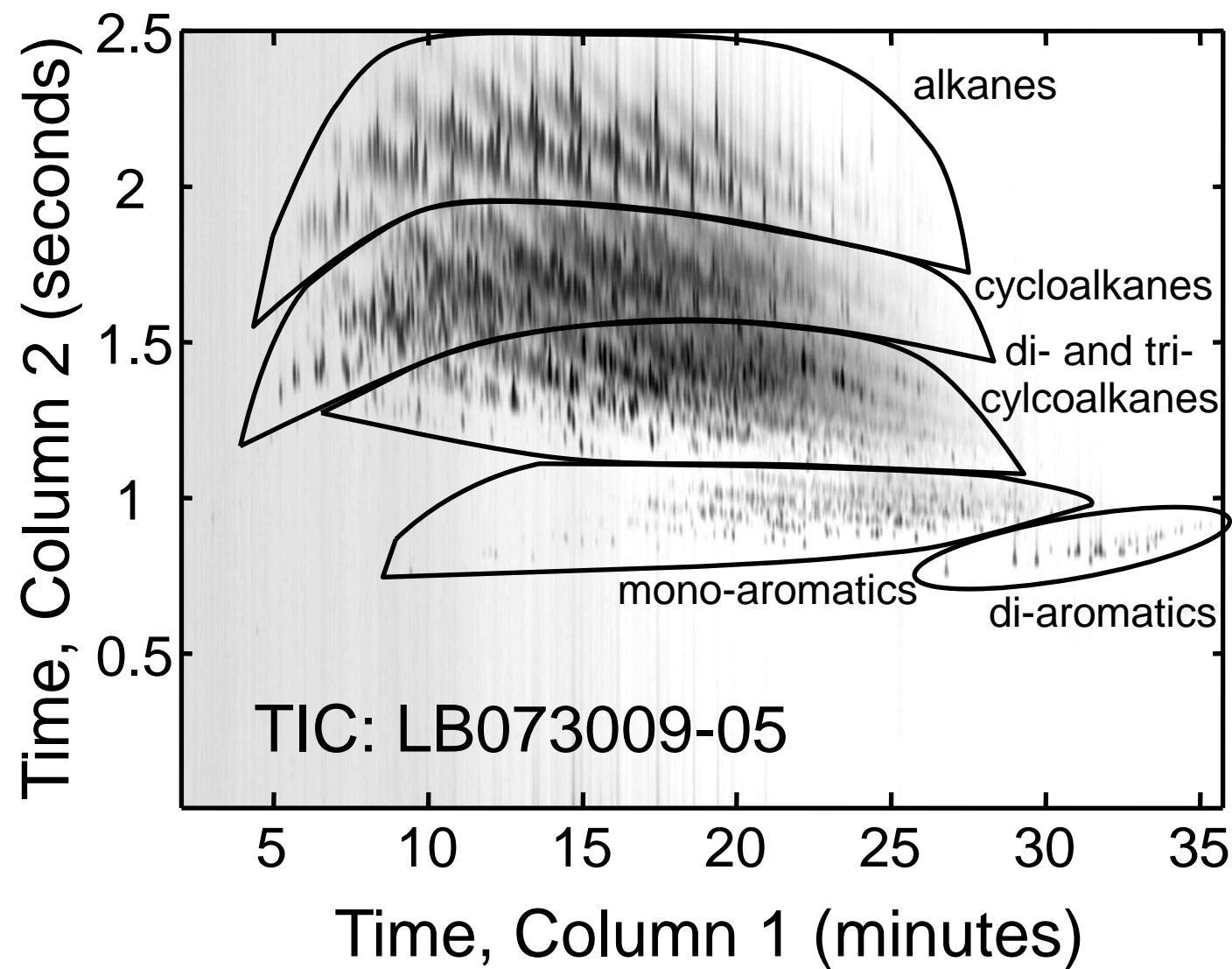


Figure 1A

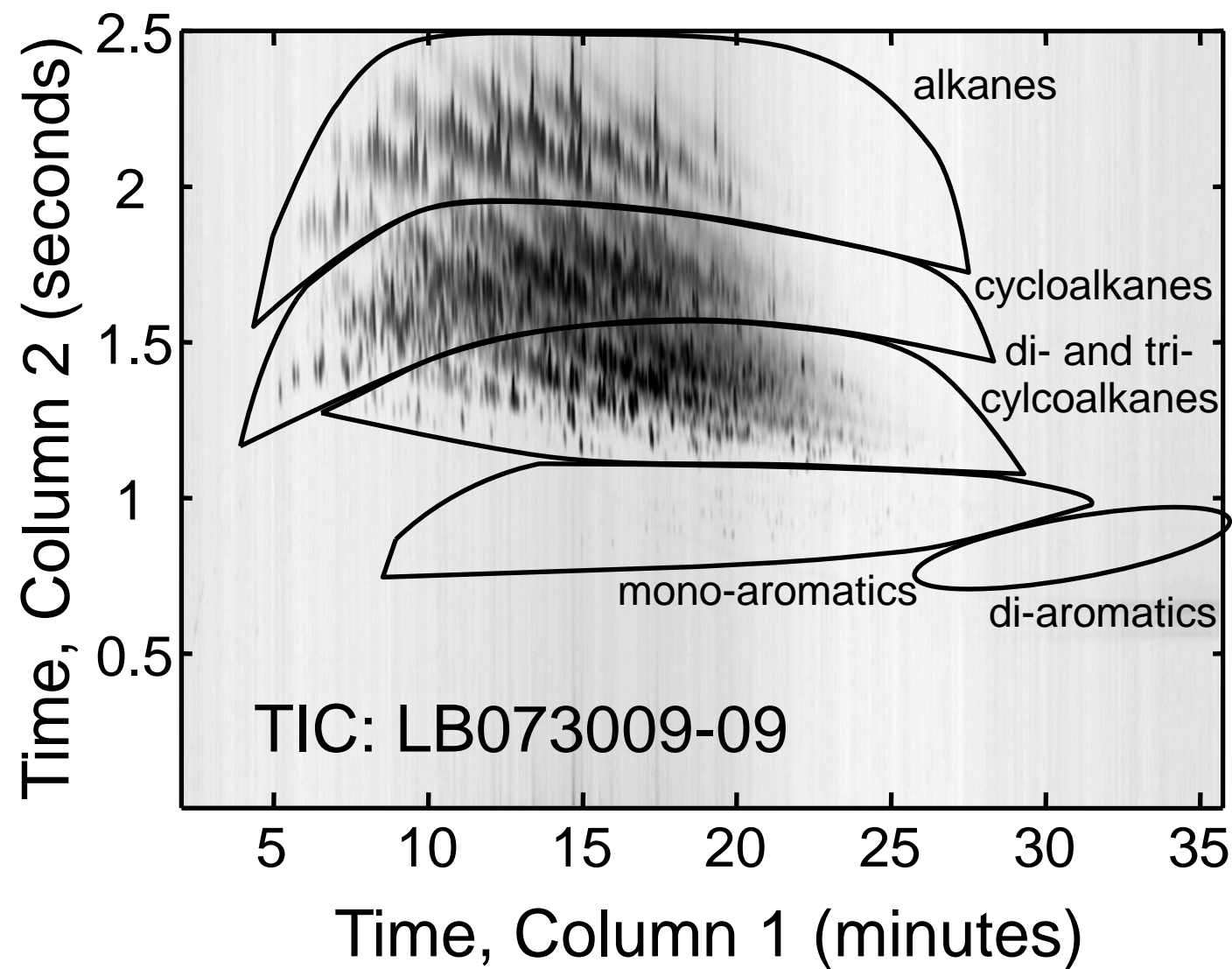


Figure 1B



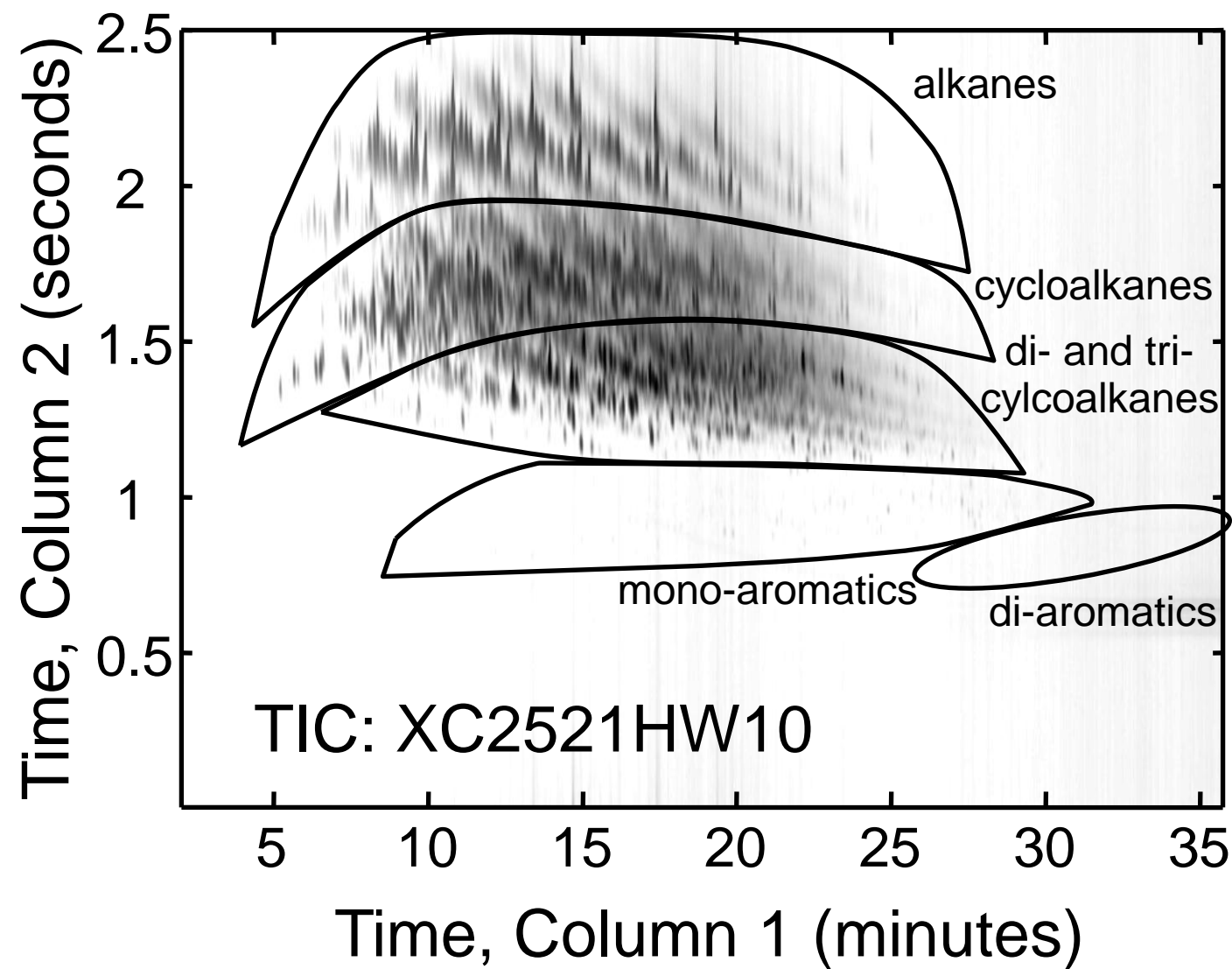


Figure 1C

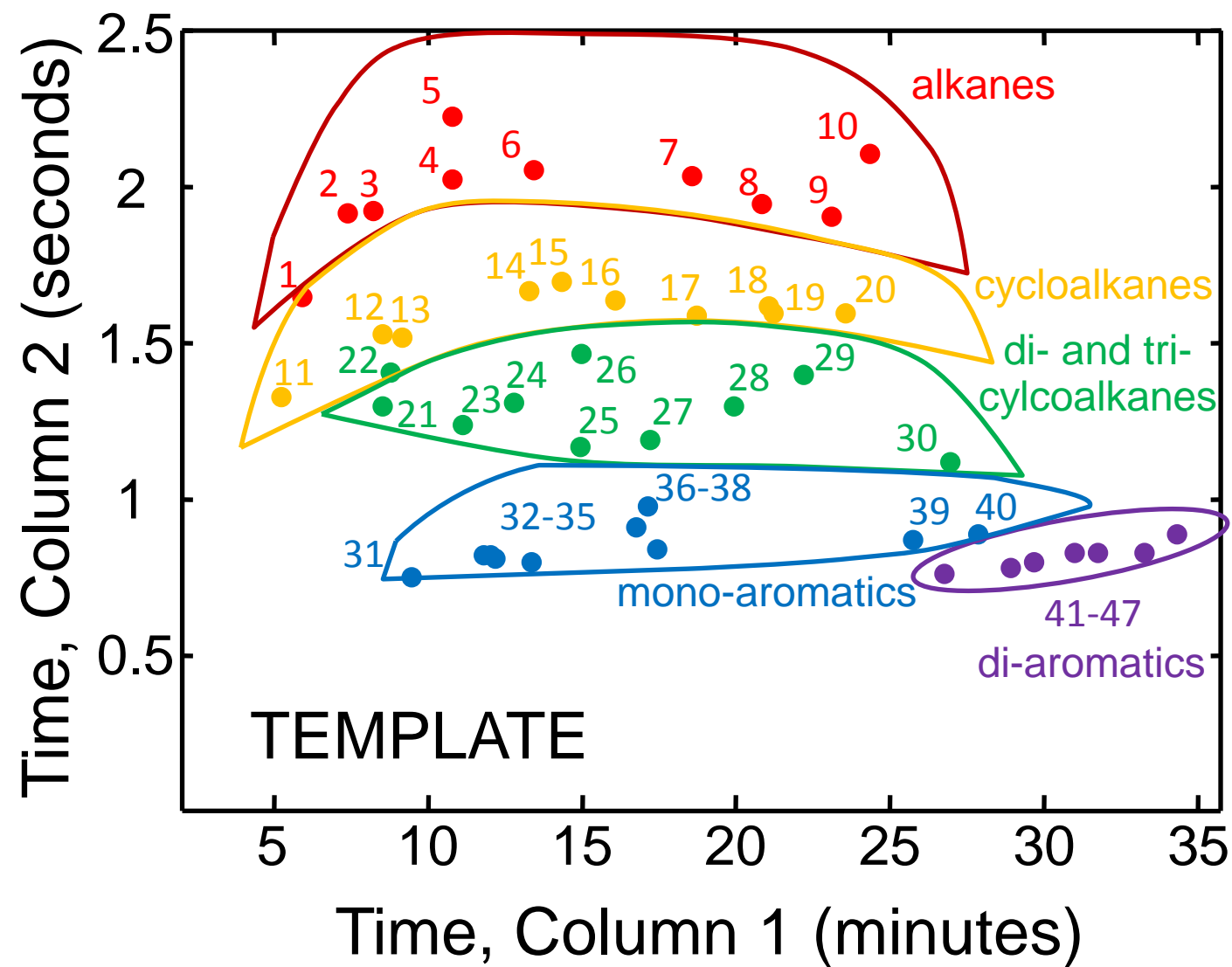


Figure 1D

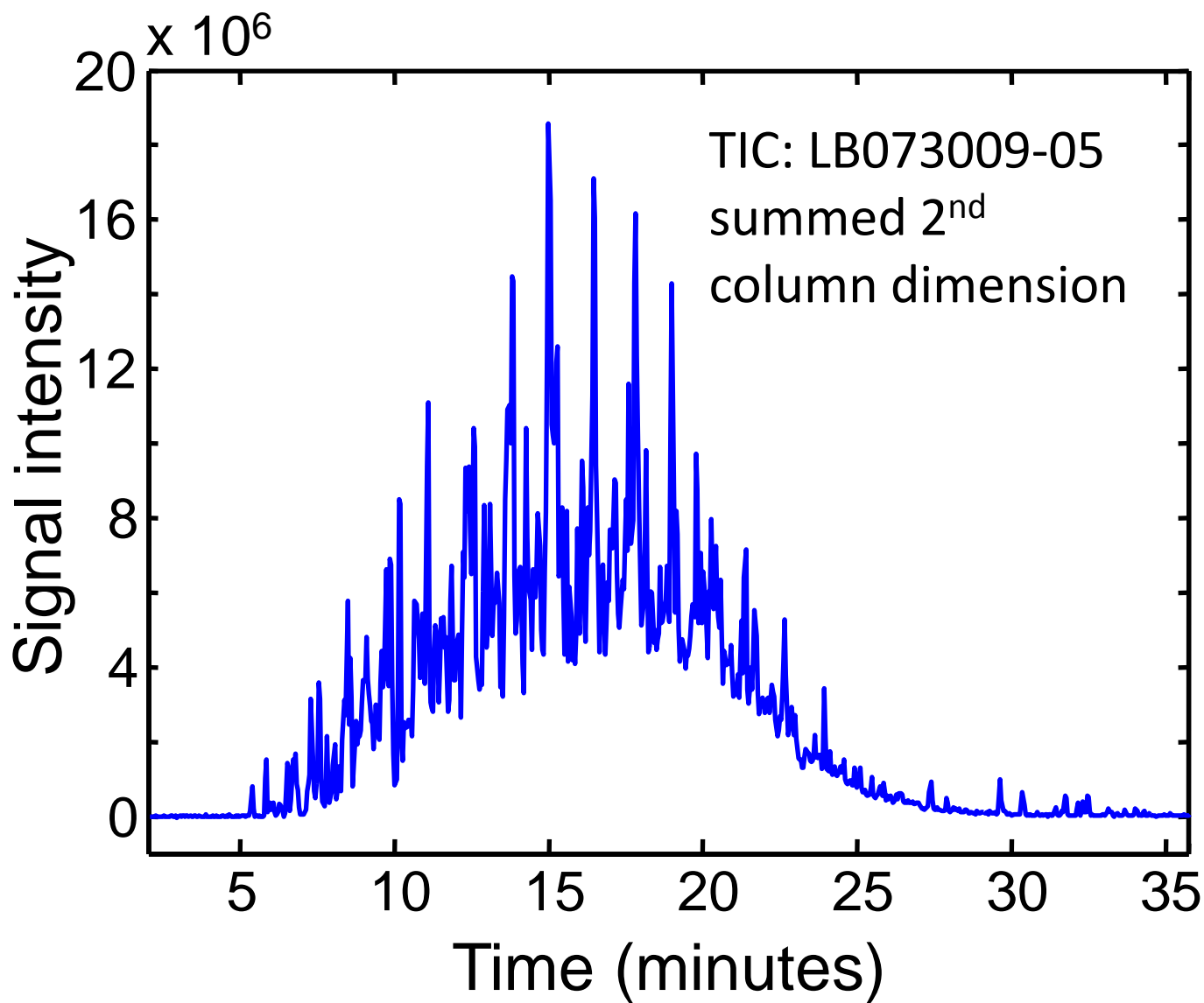


Figure 1E

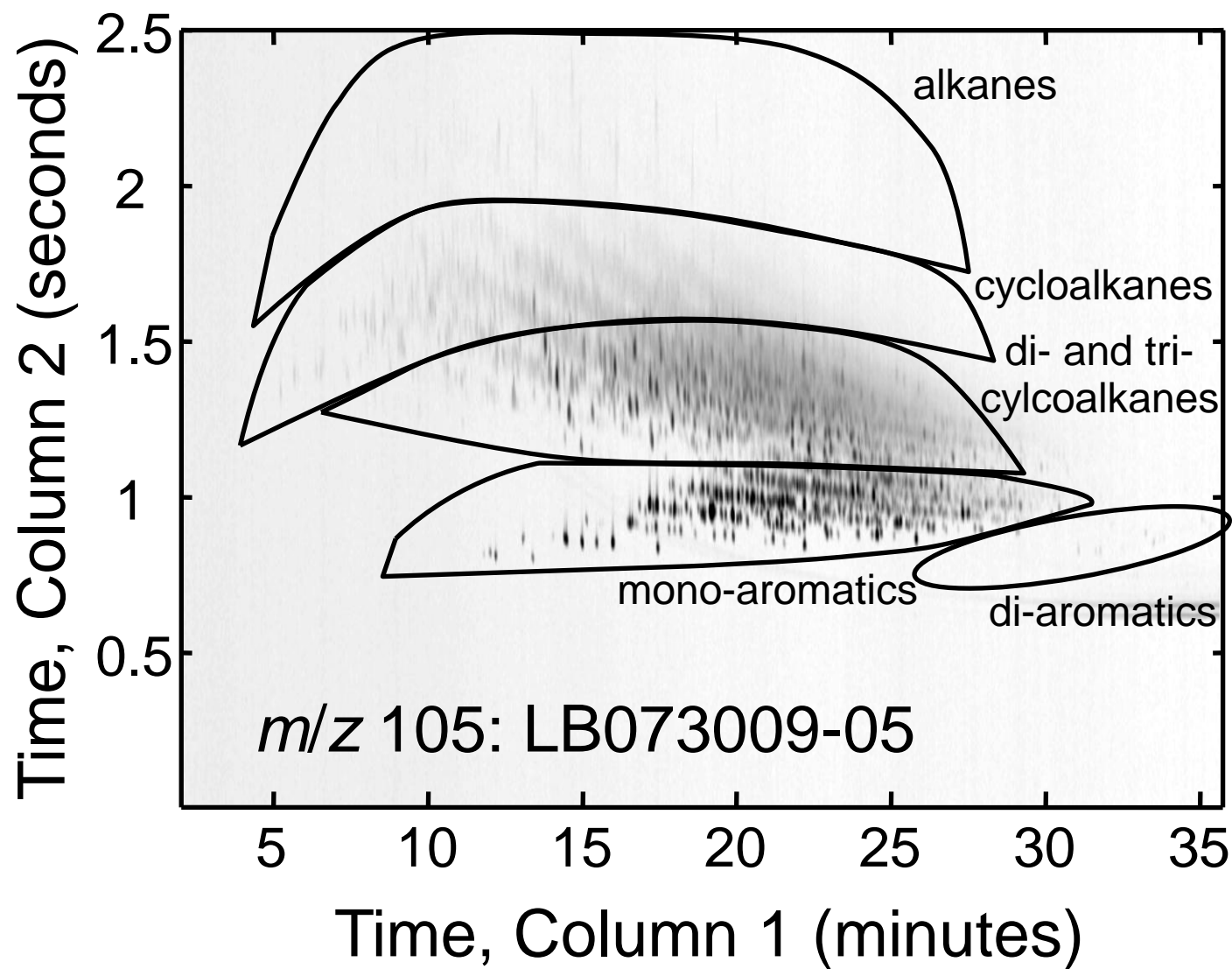


Figure 2A

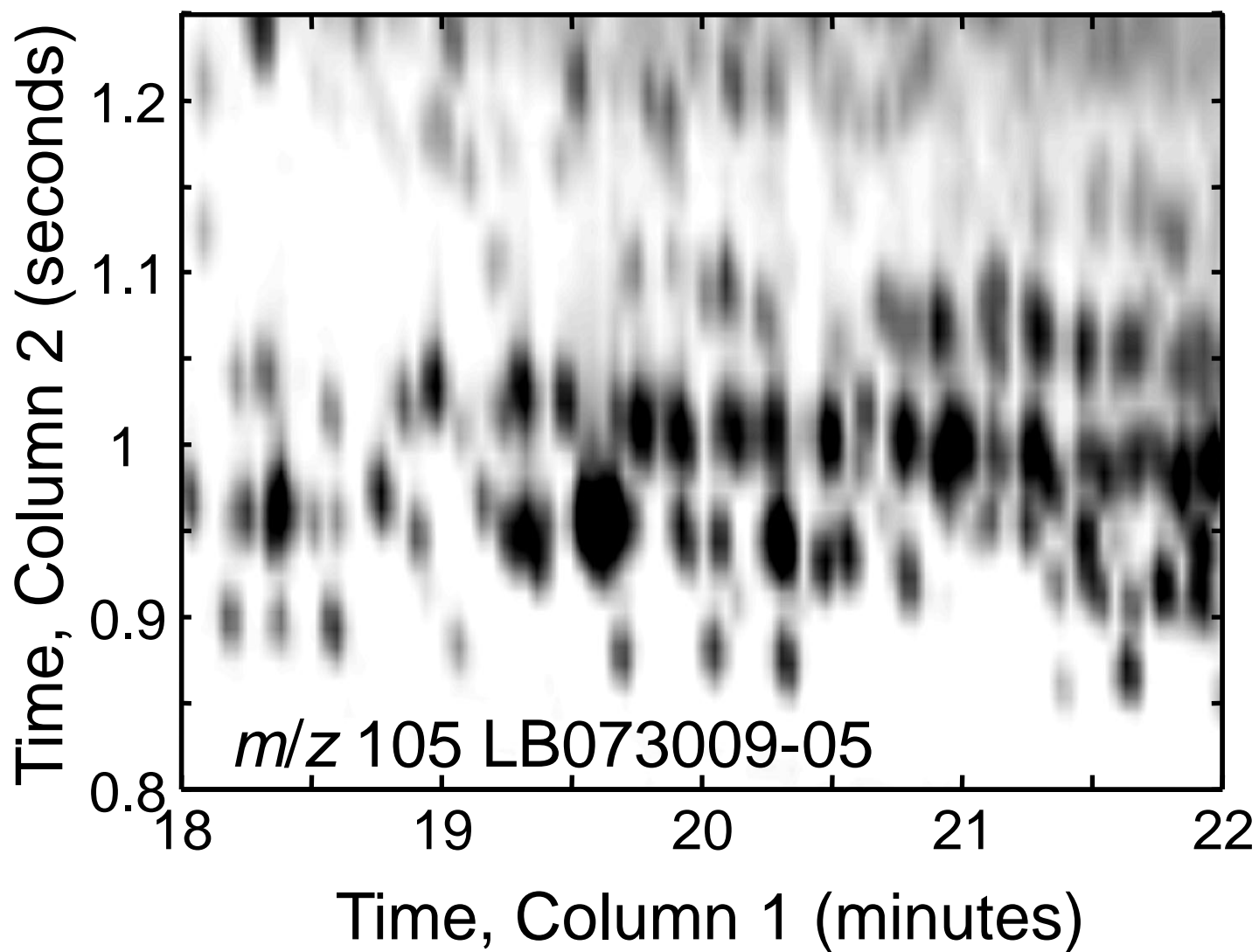


Figure 2B

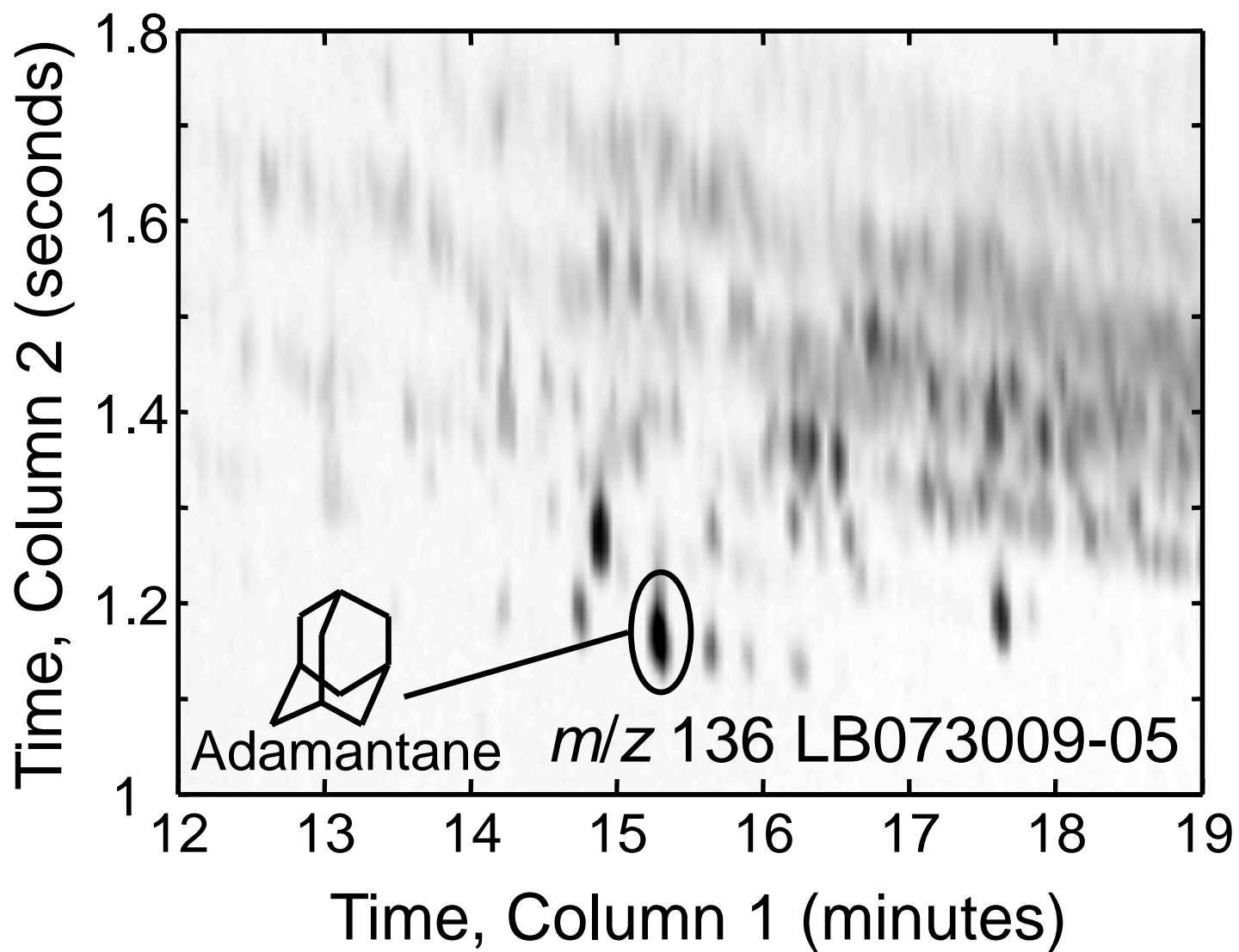


Figure 2C

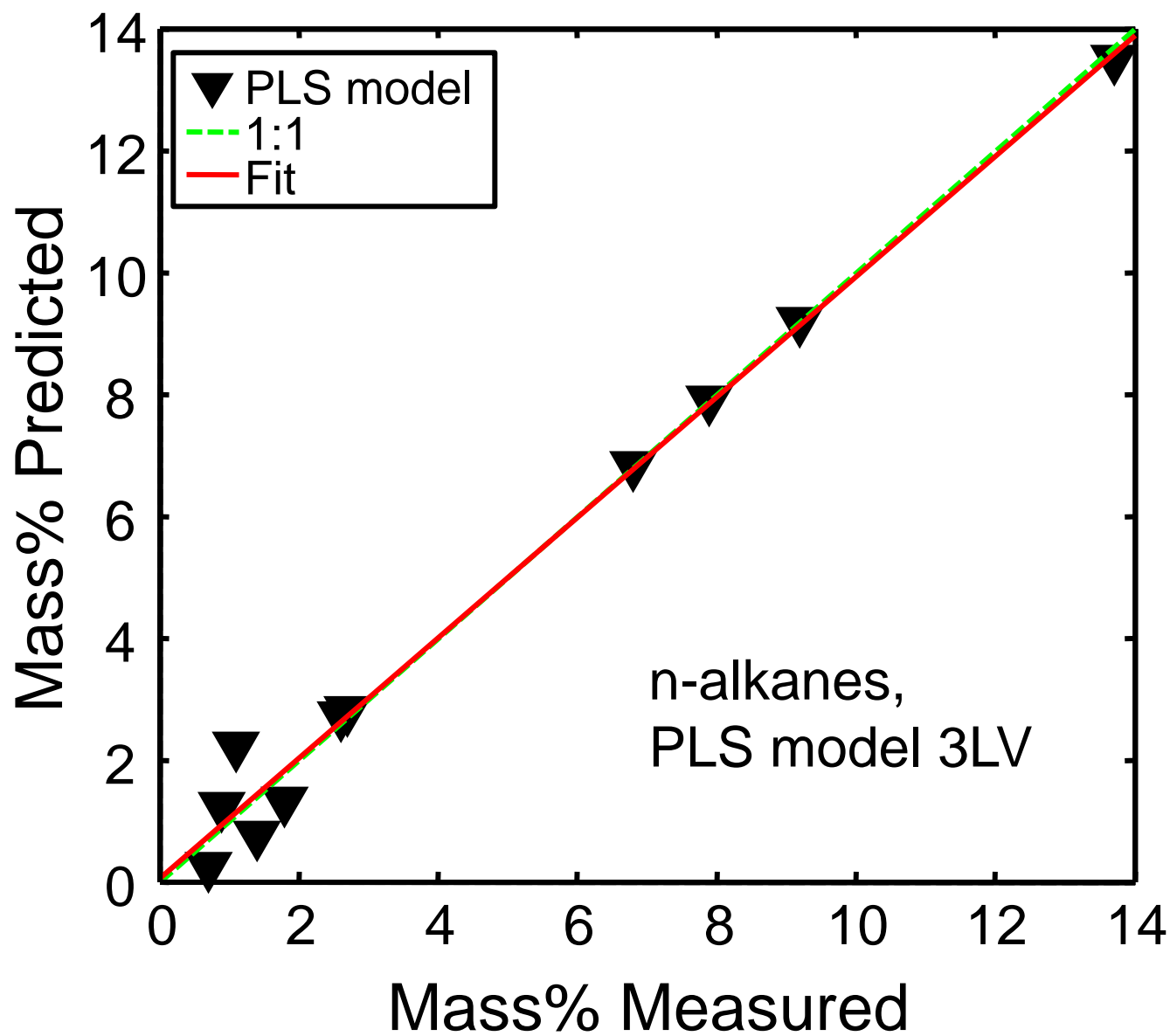


Figure 3A

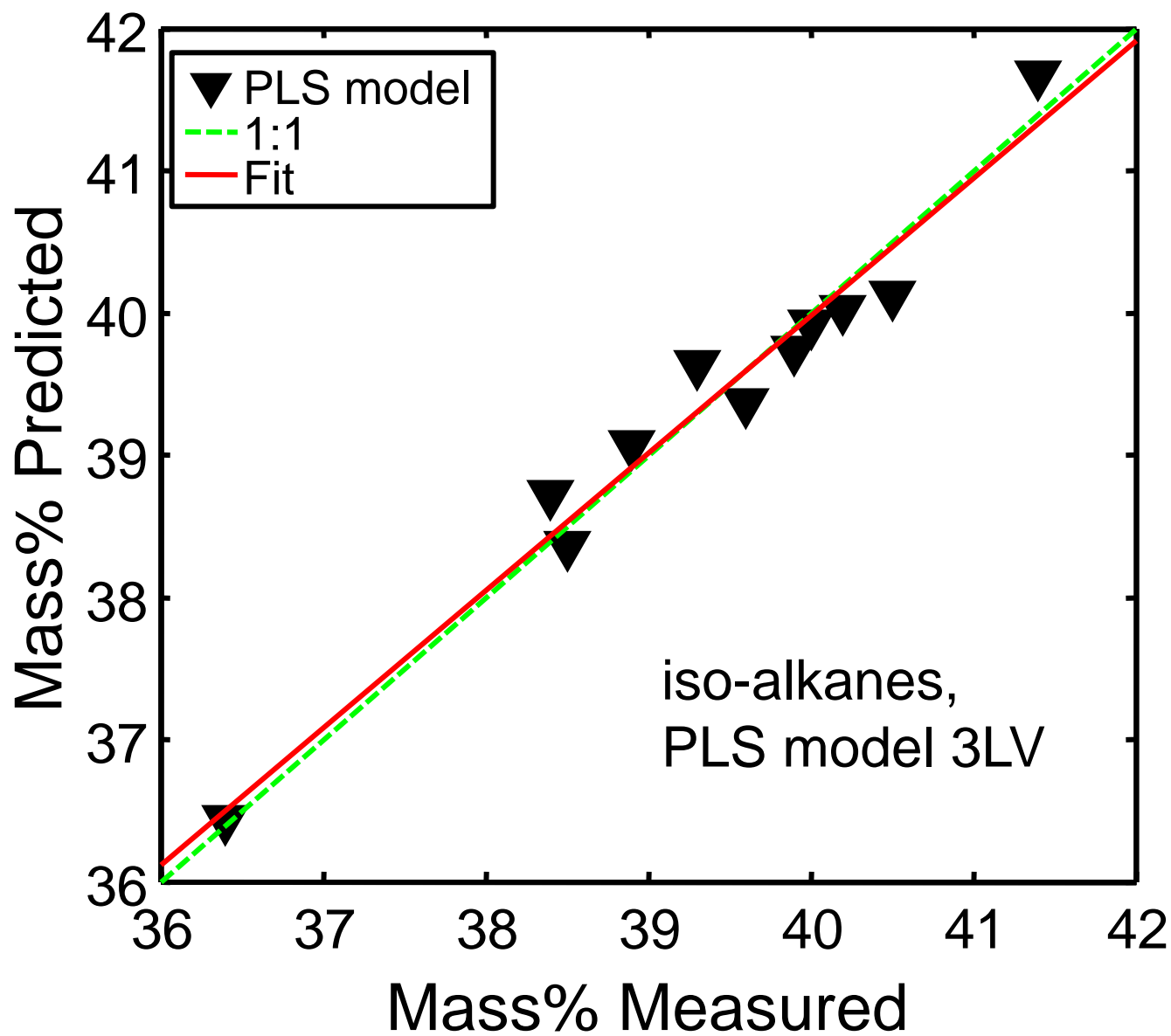


Figure 3B



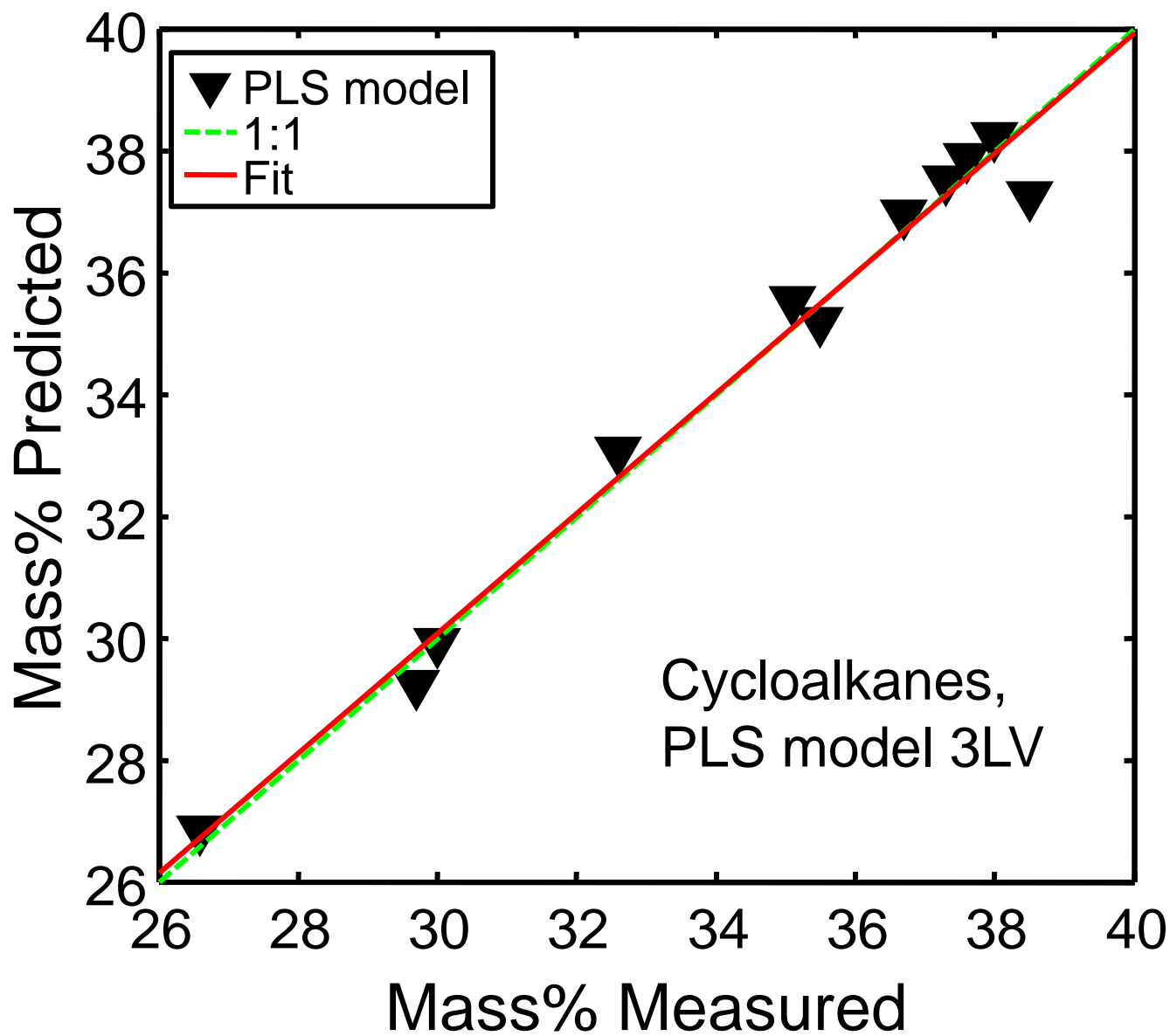


Figure 3C

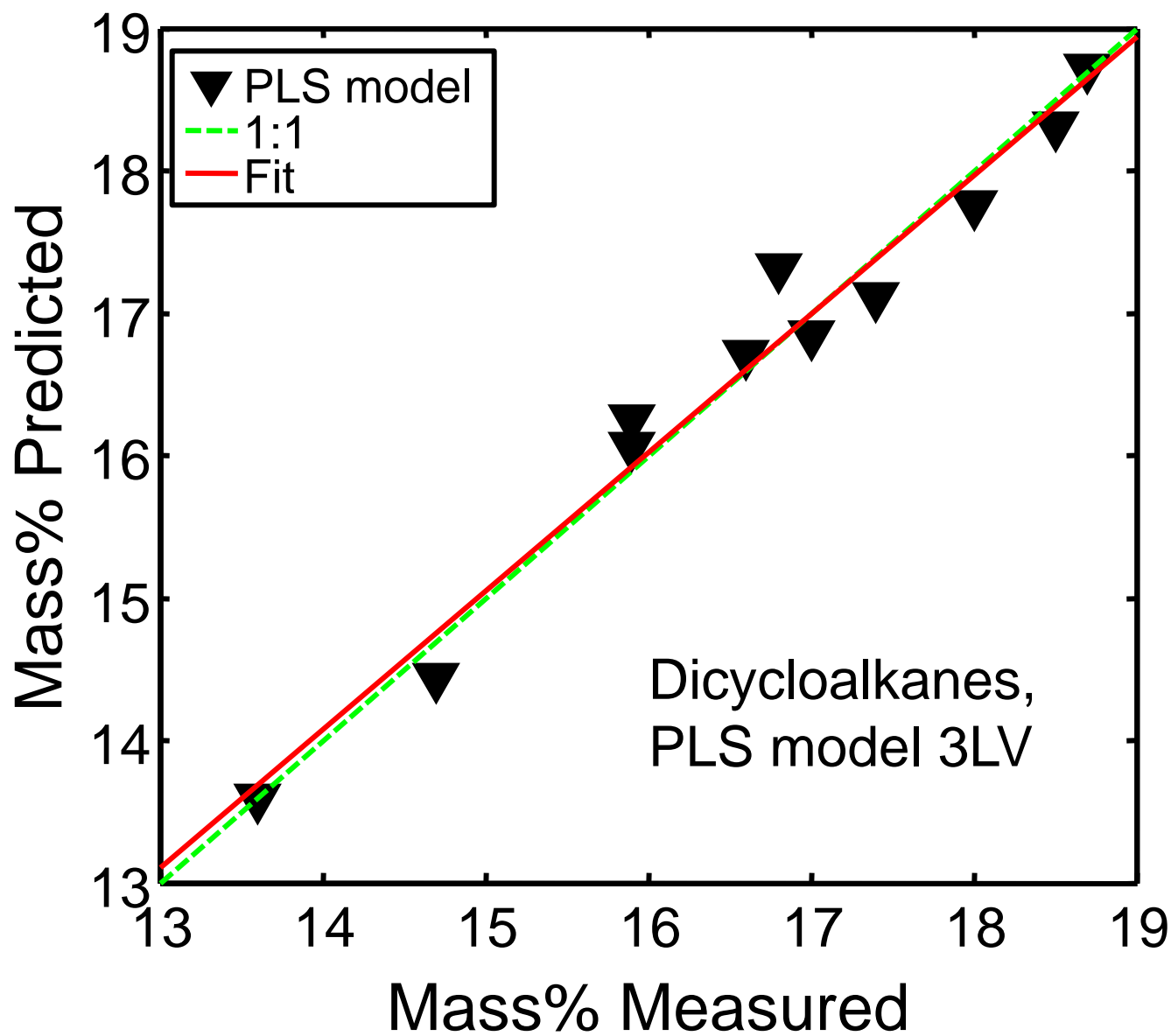


Figure 3D

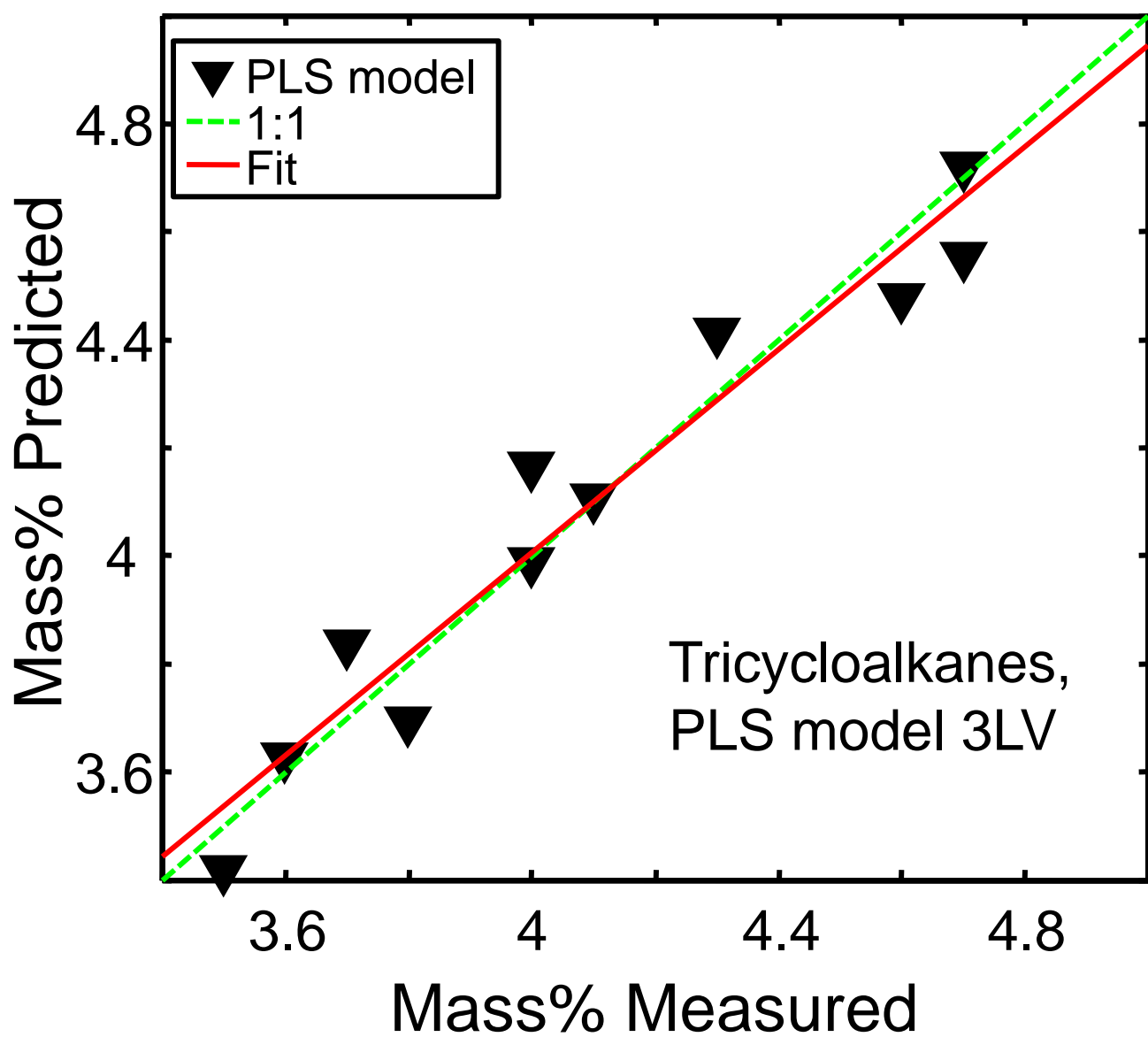


Figure 3E

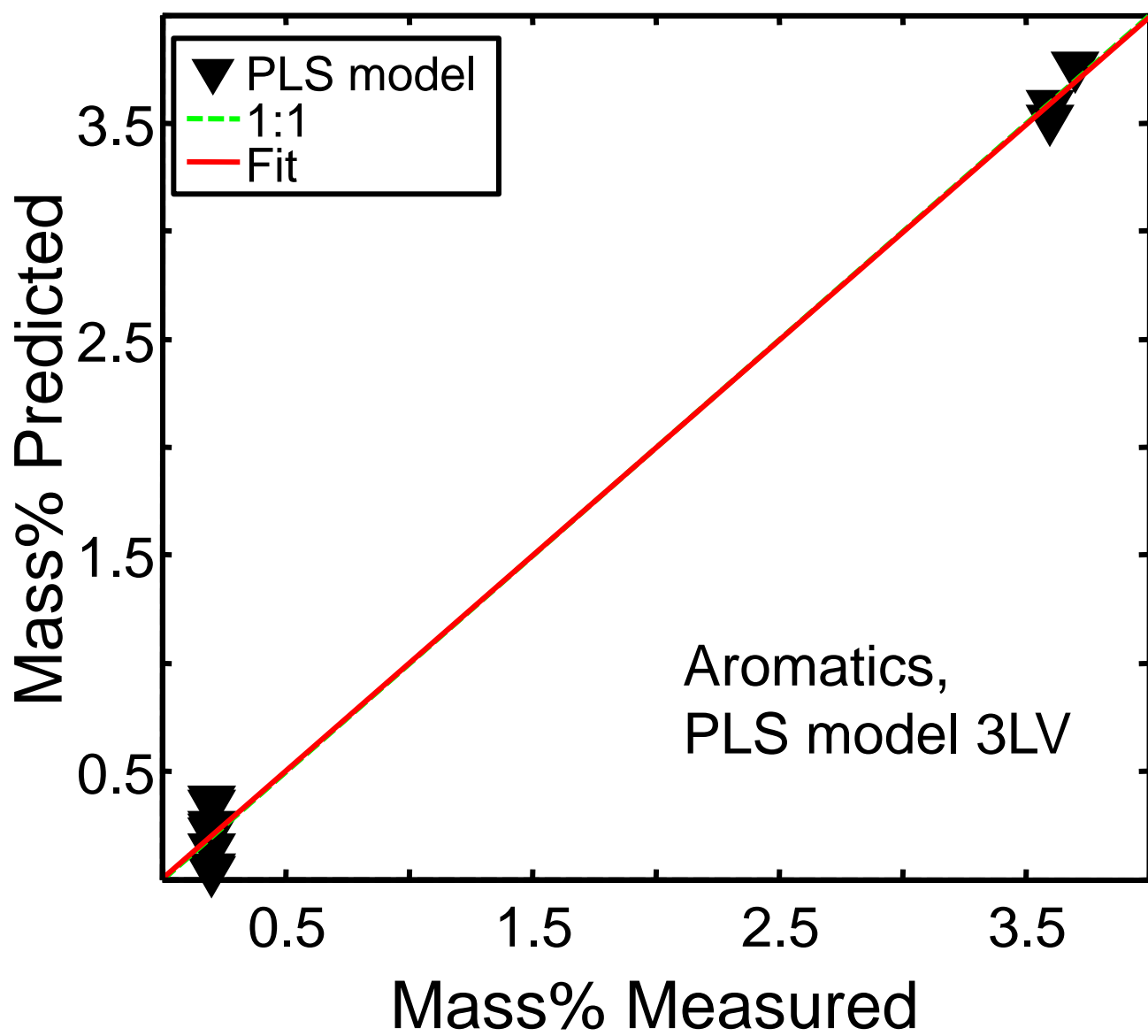


Figure 3F

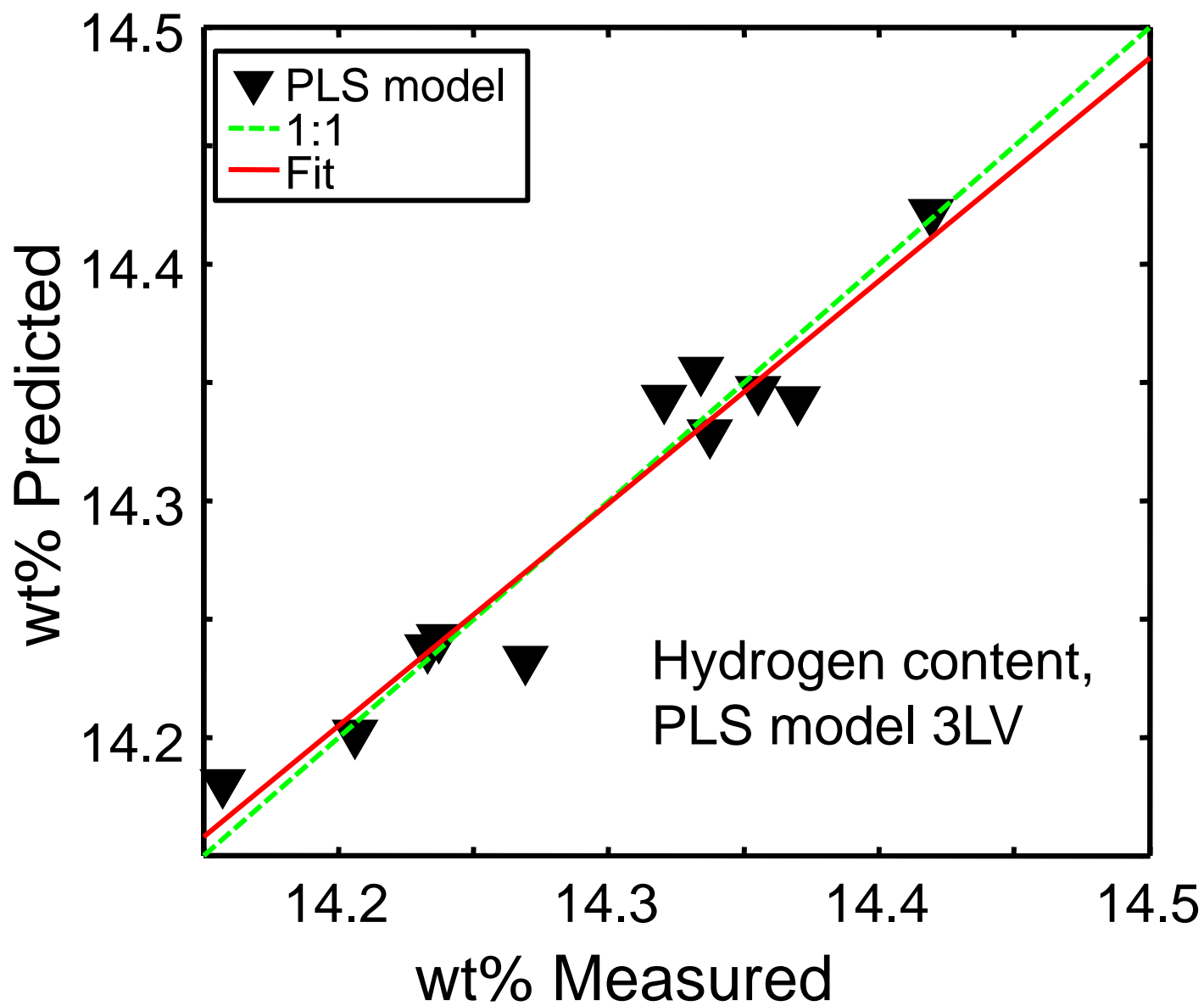


Figure 4A

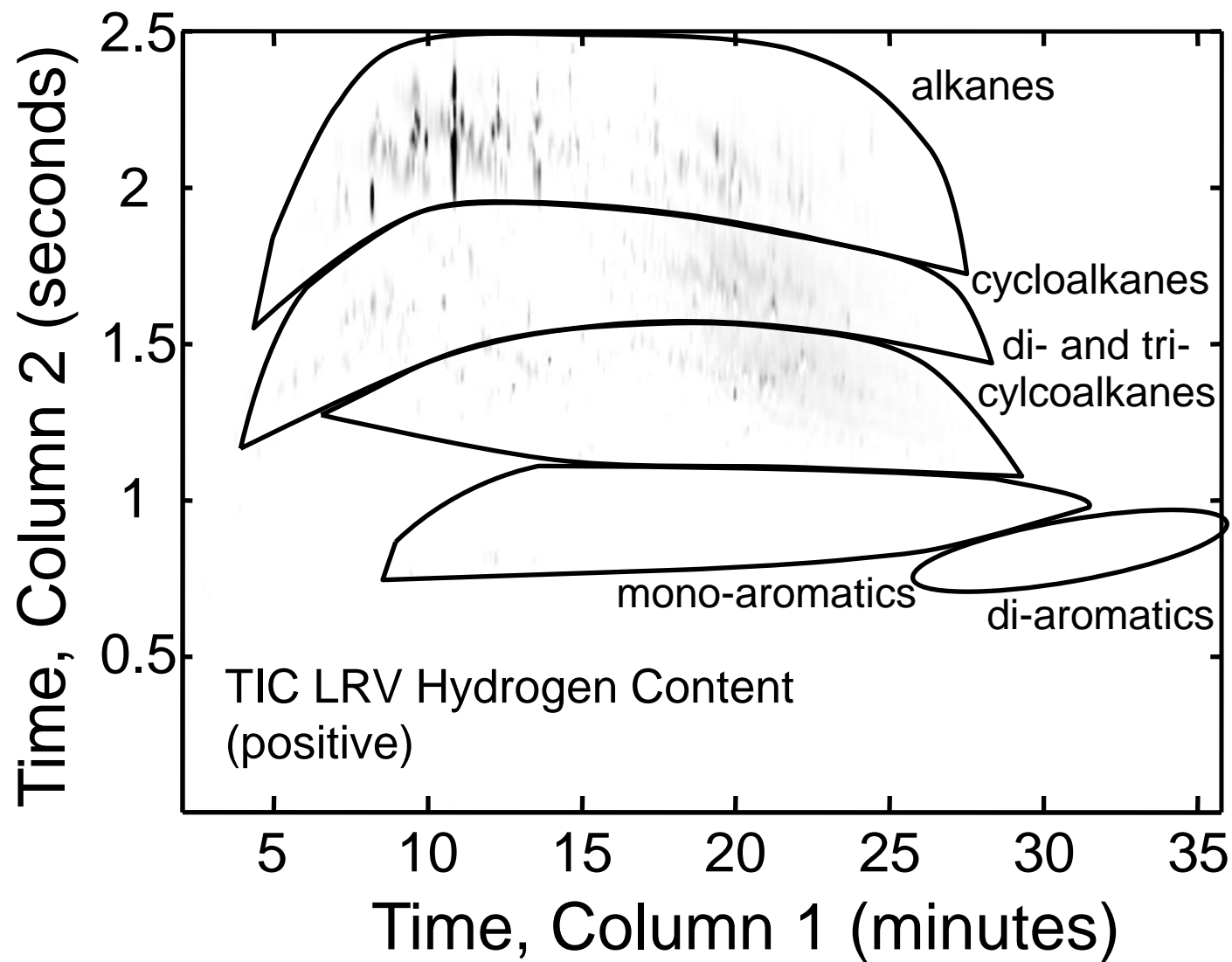


Figure 4B

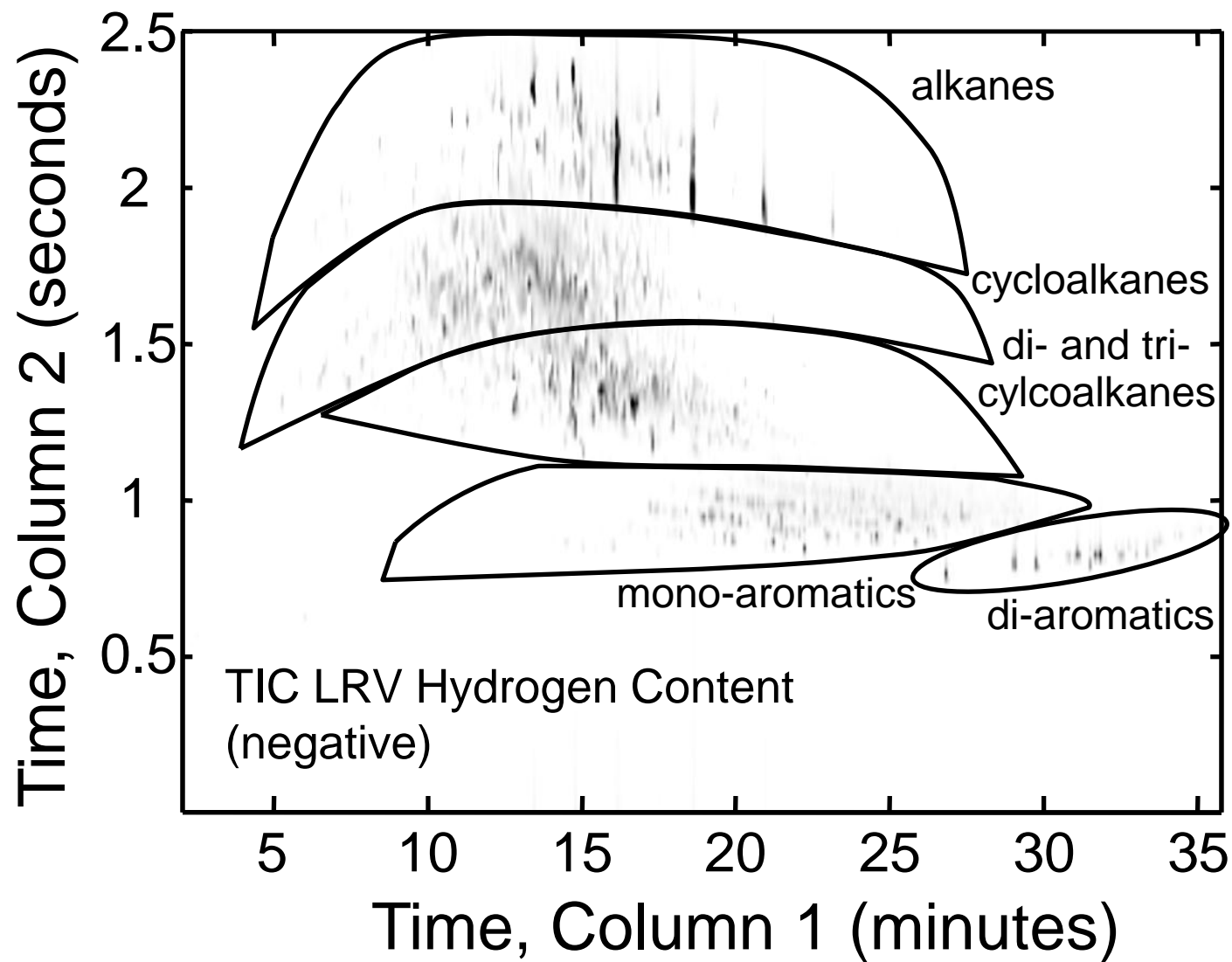


Figure 4C

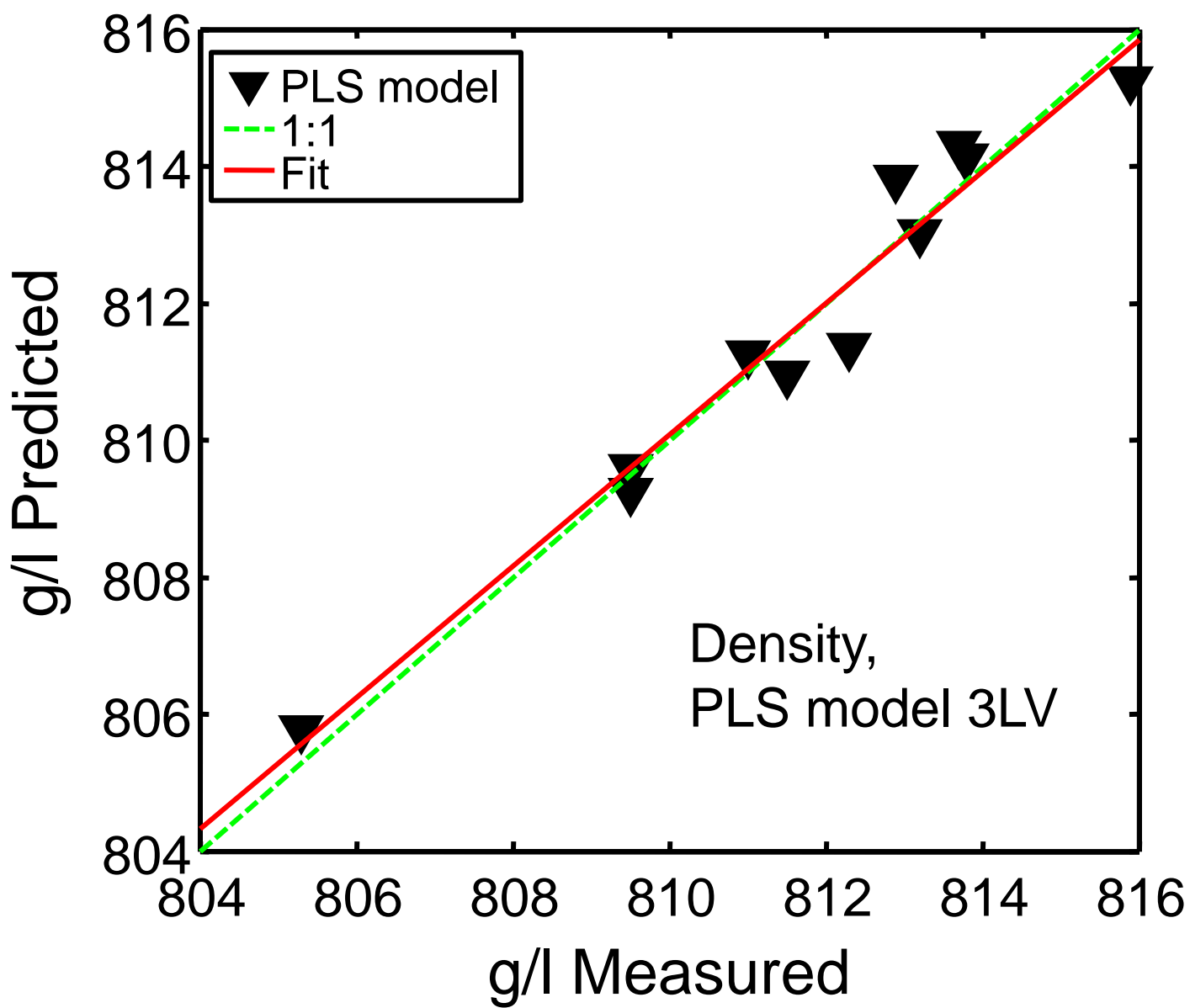


Figure 5A



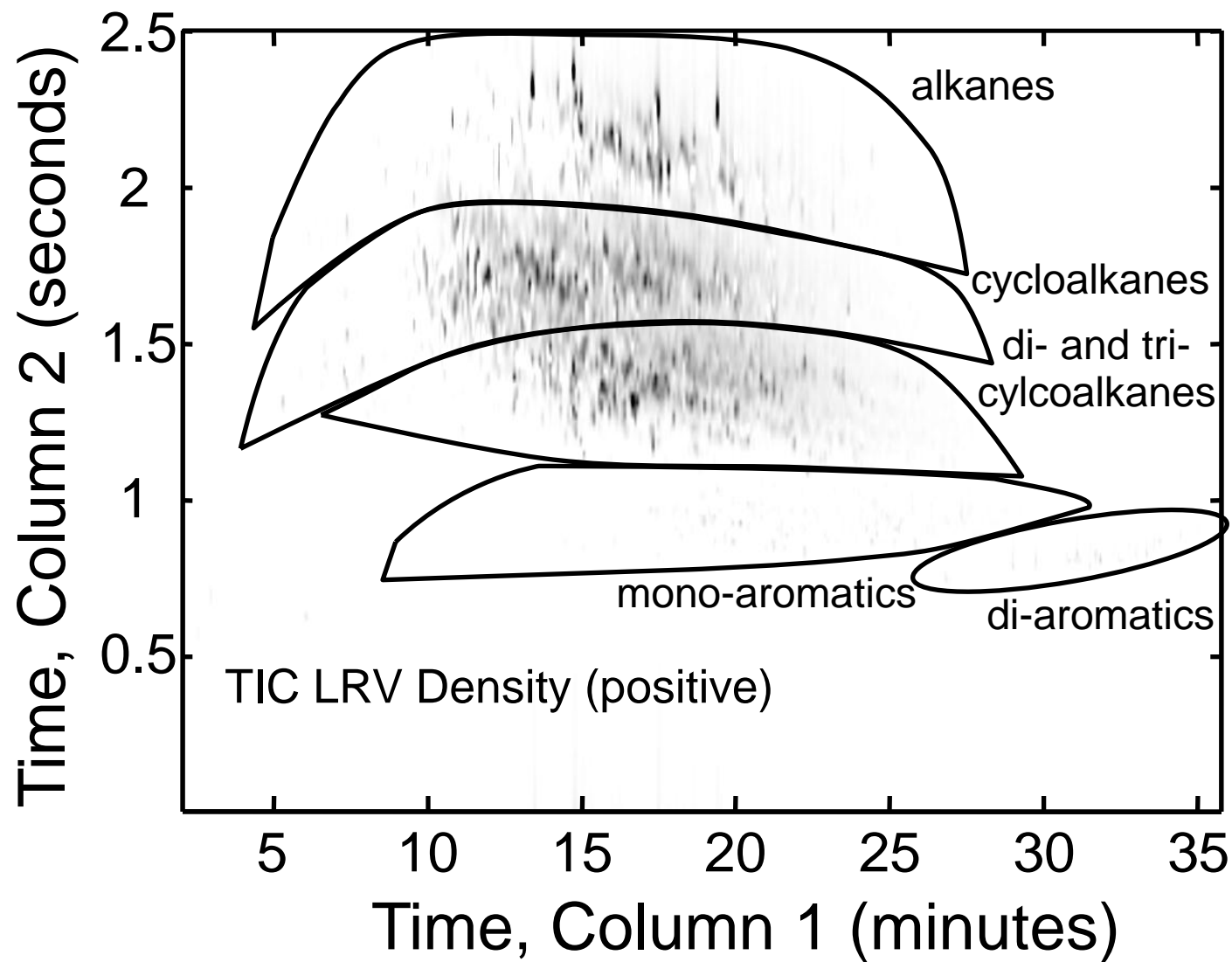


Figure 5B

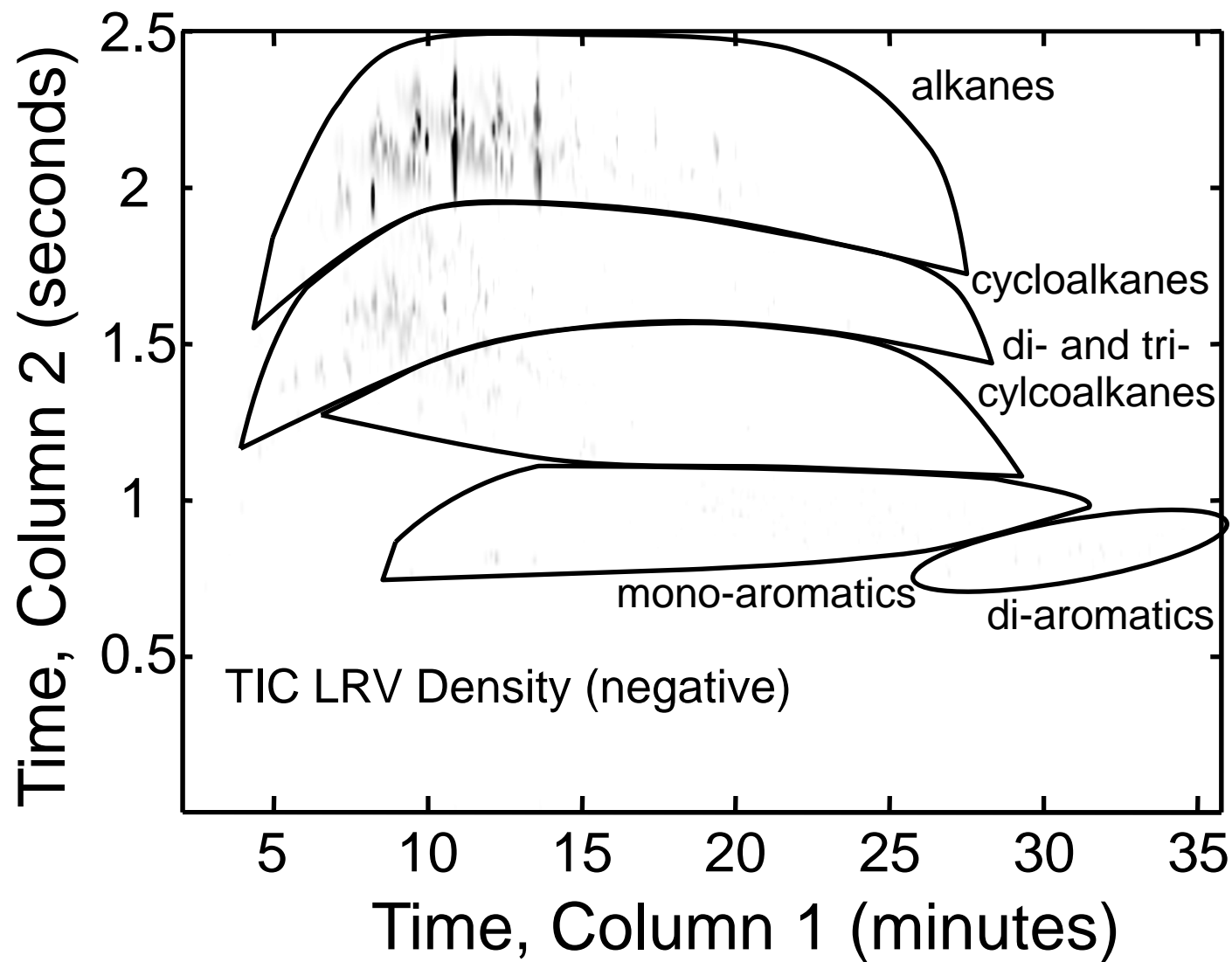


Figure 5C

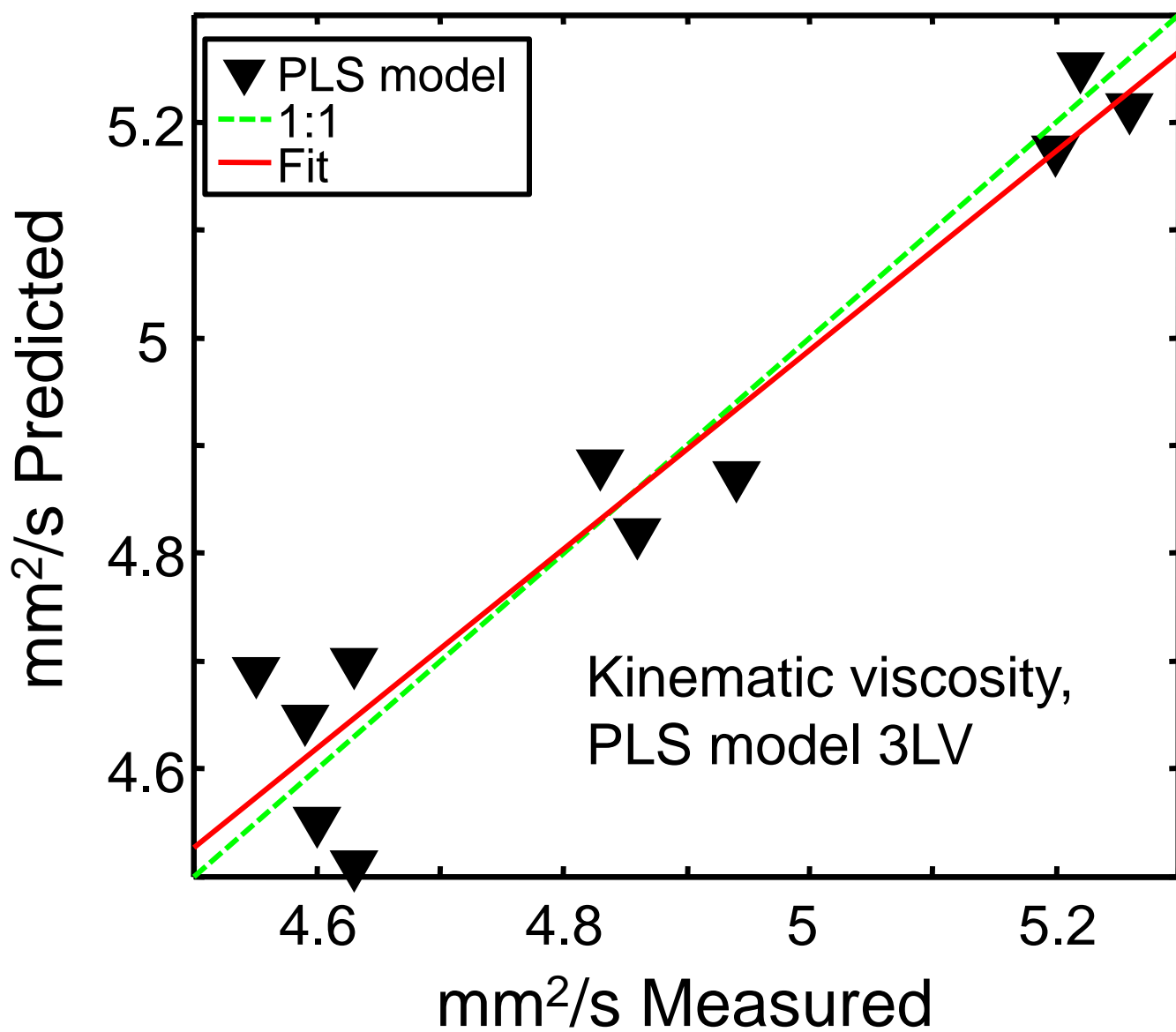


Figure 6A

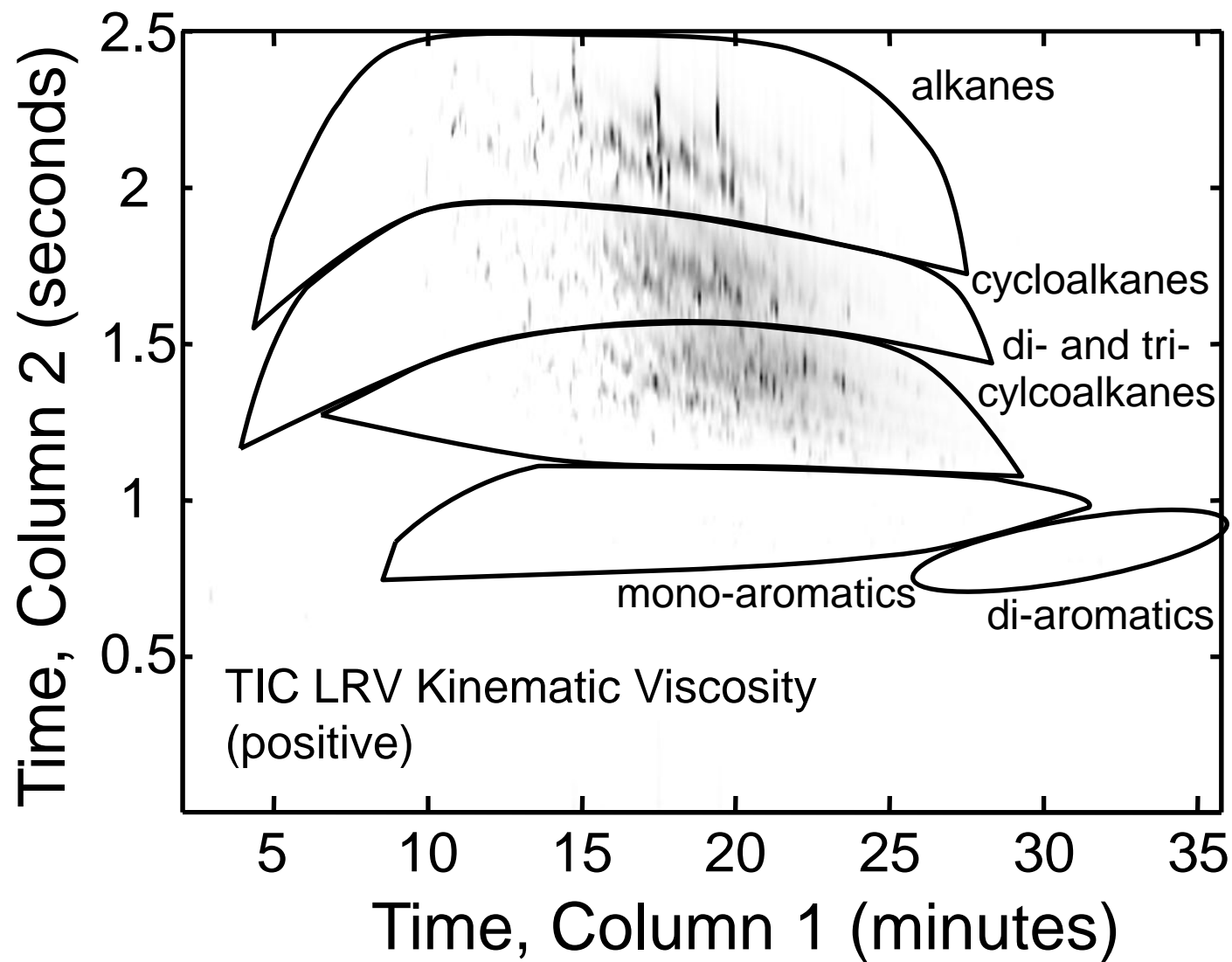


Figure 6B

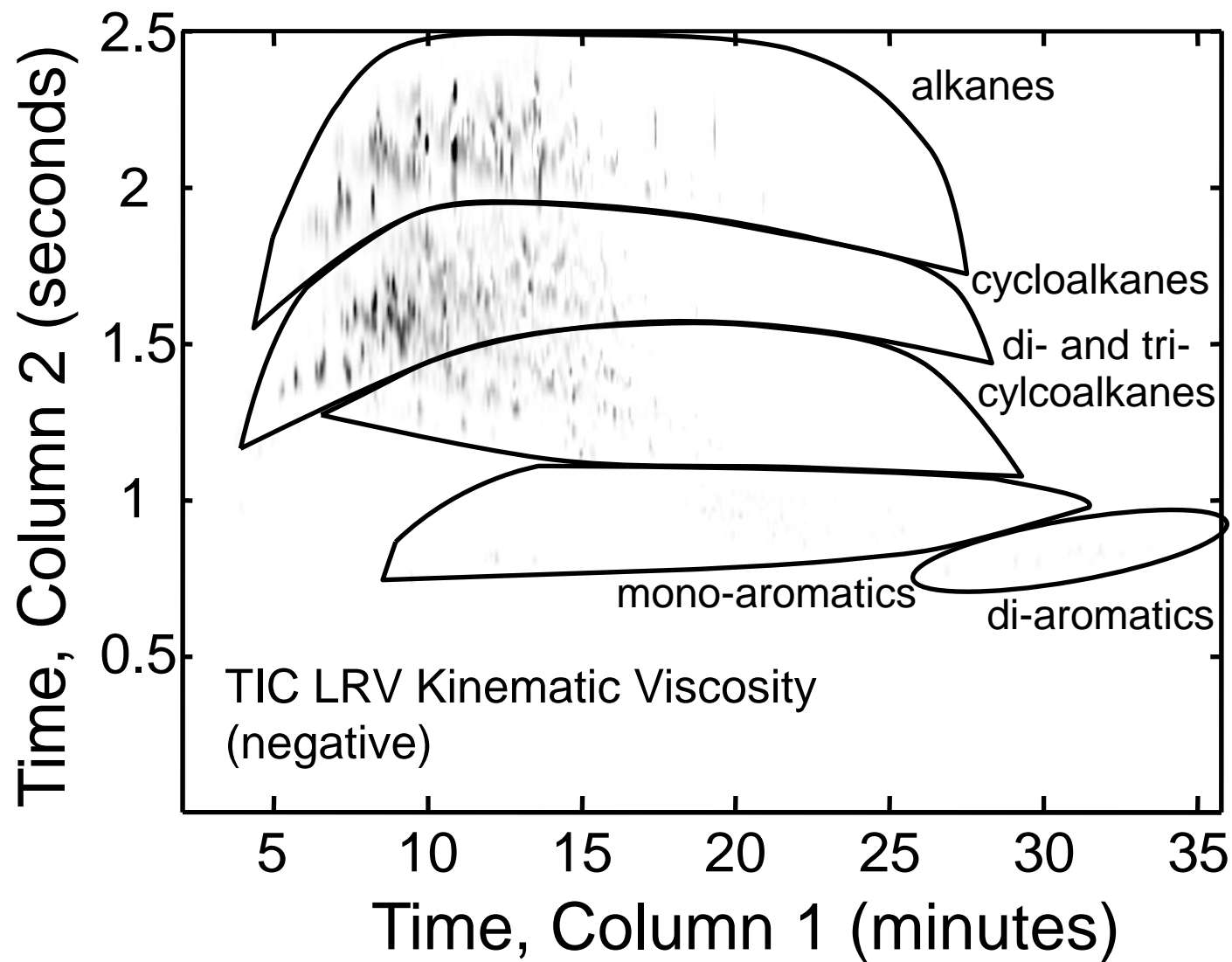


Figure 6C

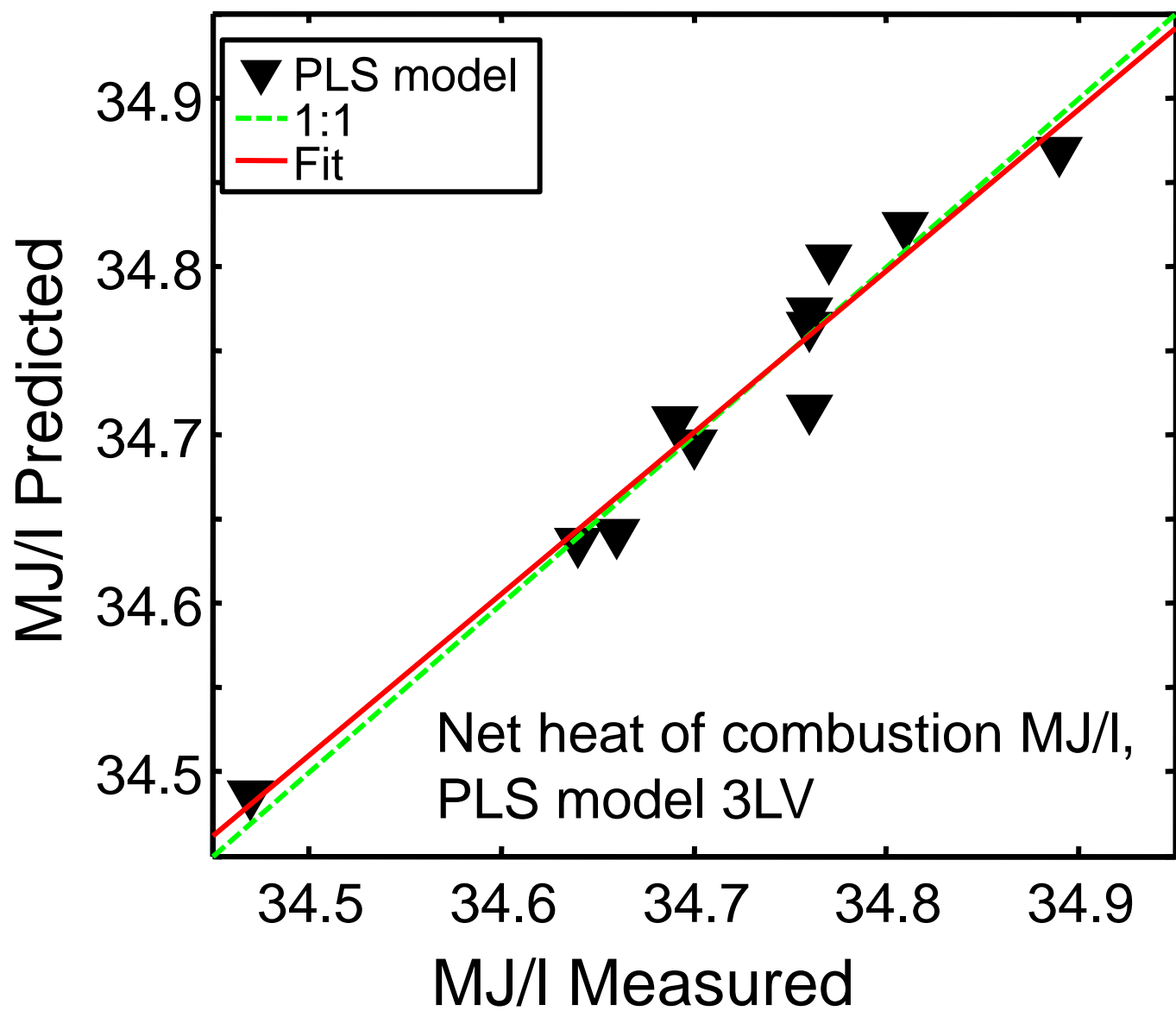


Figure 7A

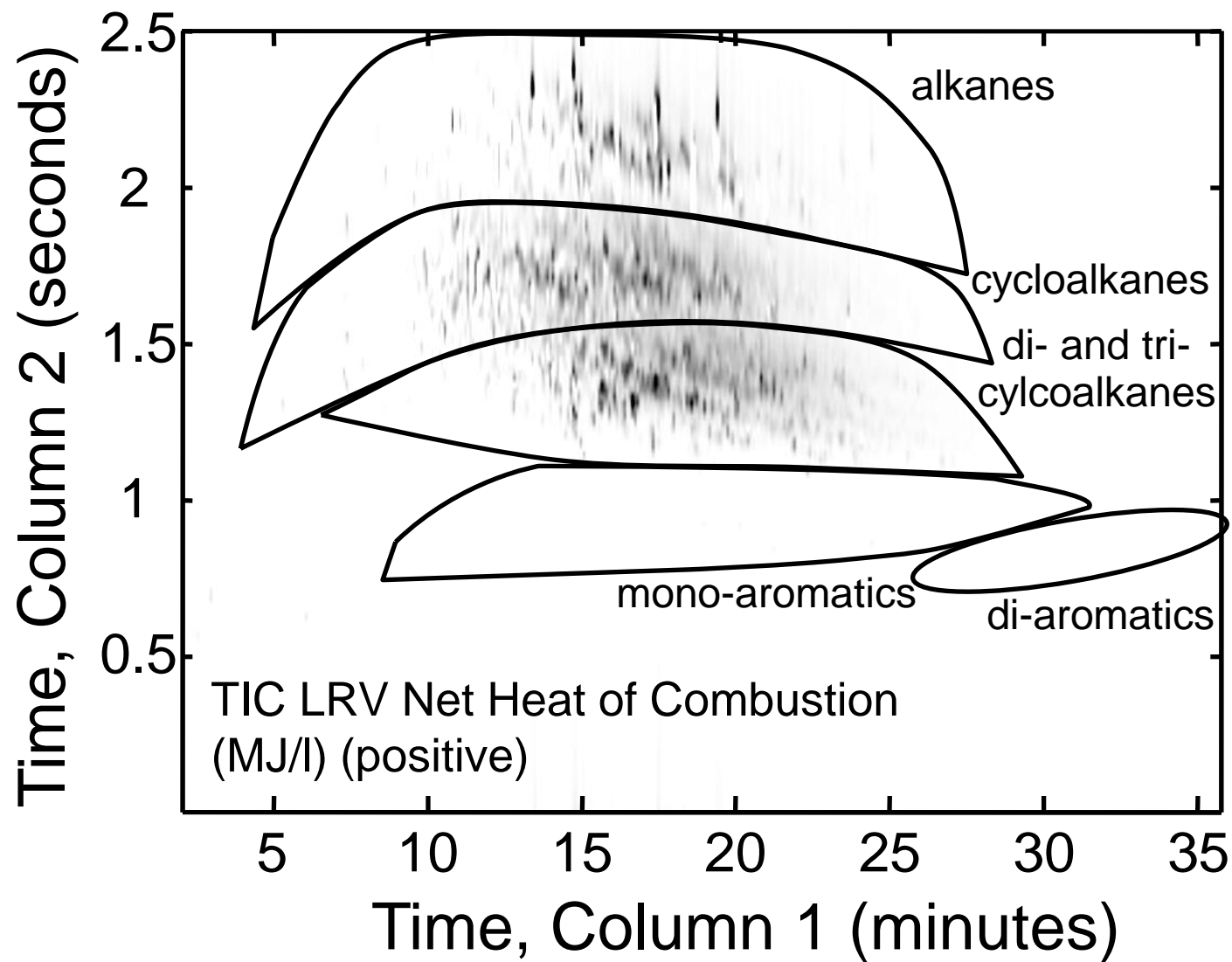


Figure 7B

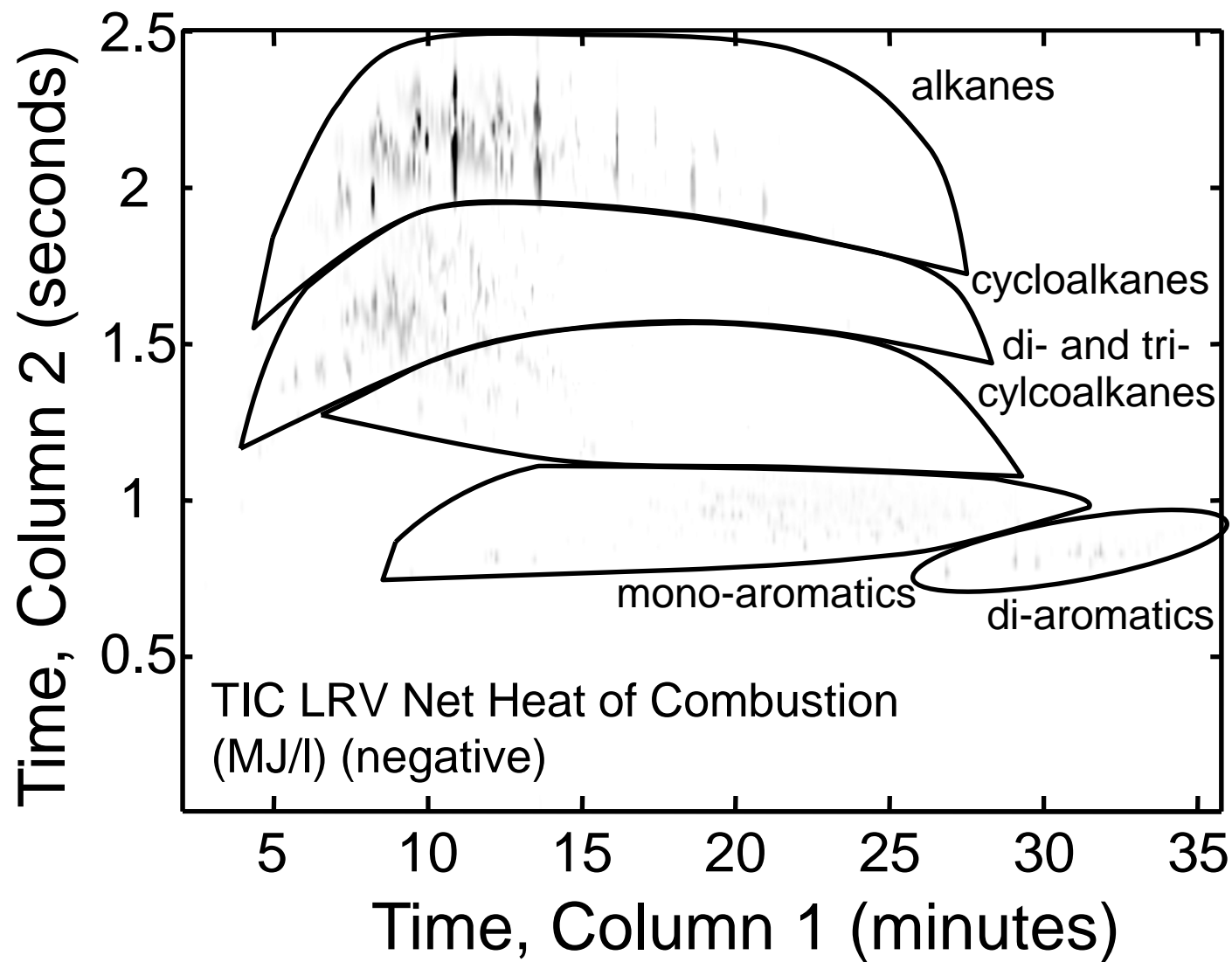


Figure 7C



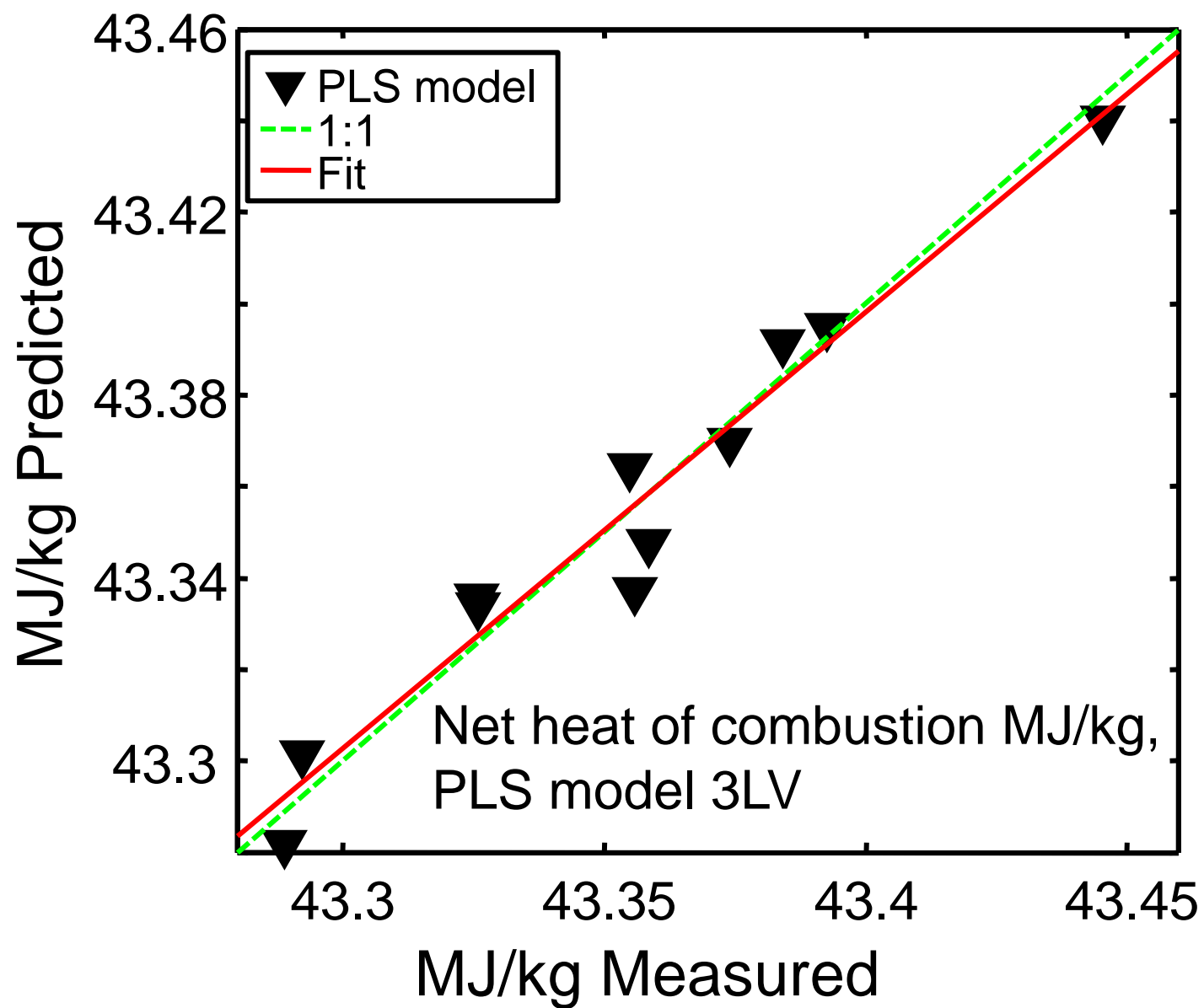


Figure 8A

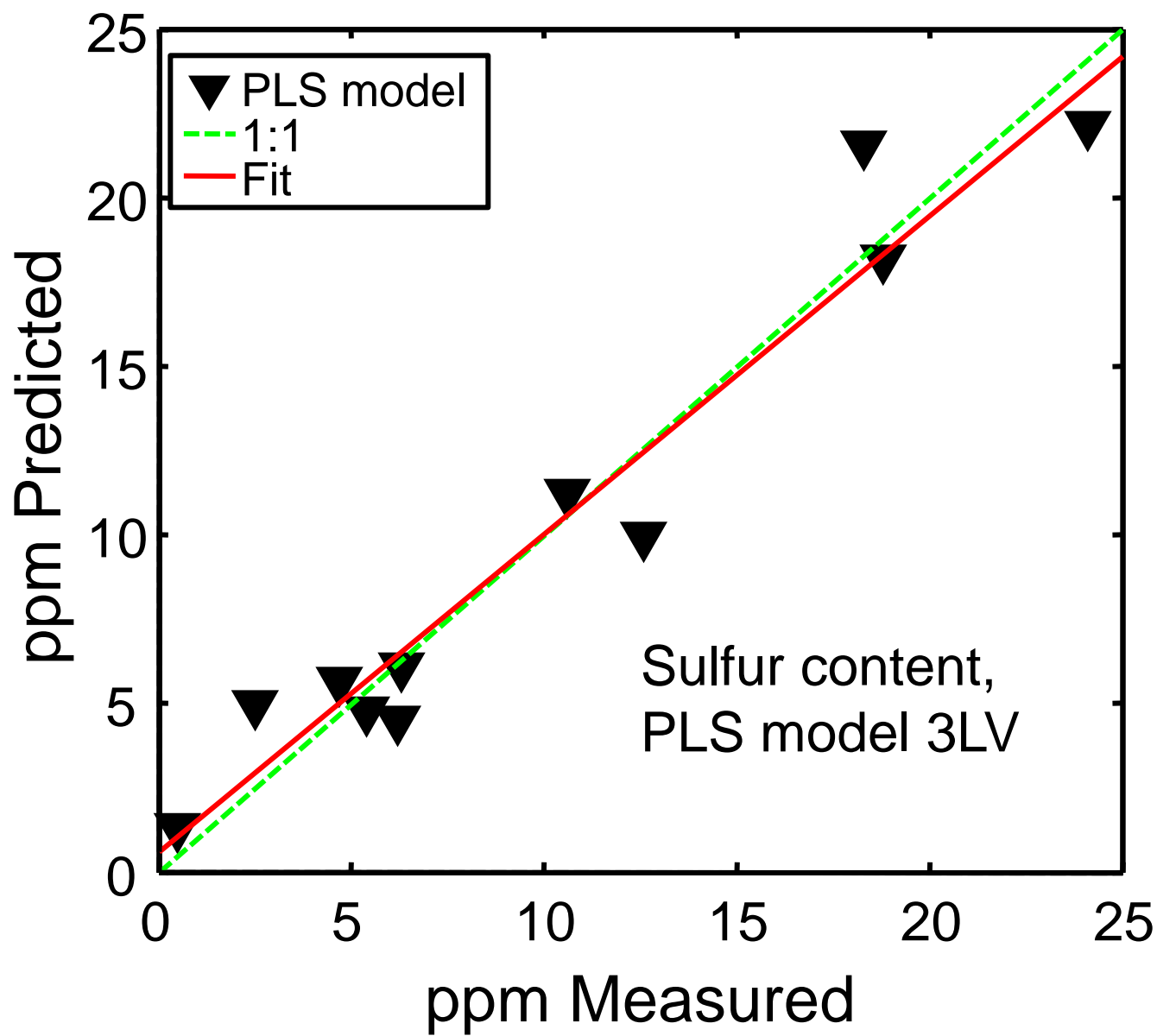


Figure 8B

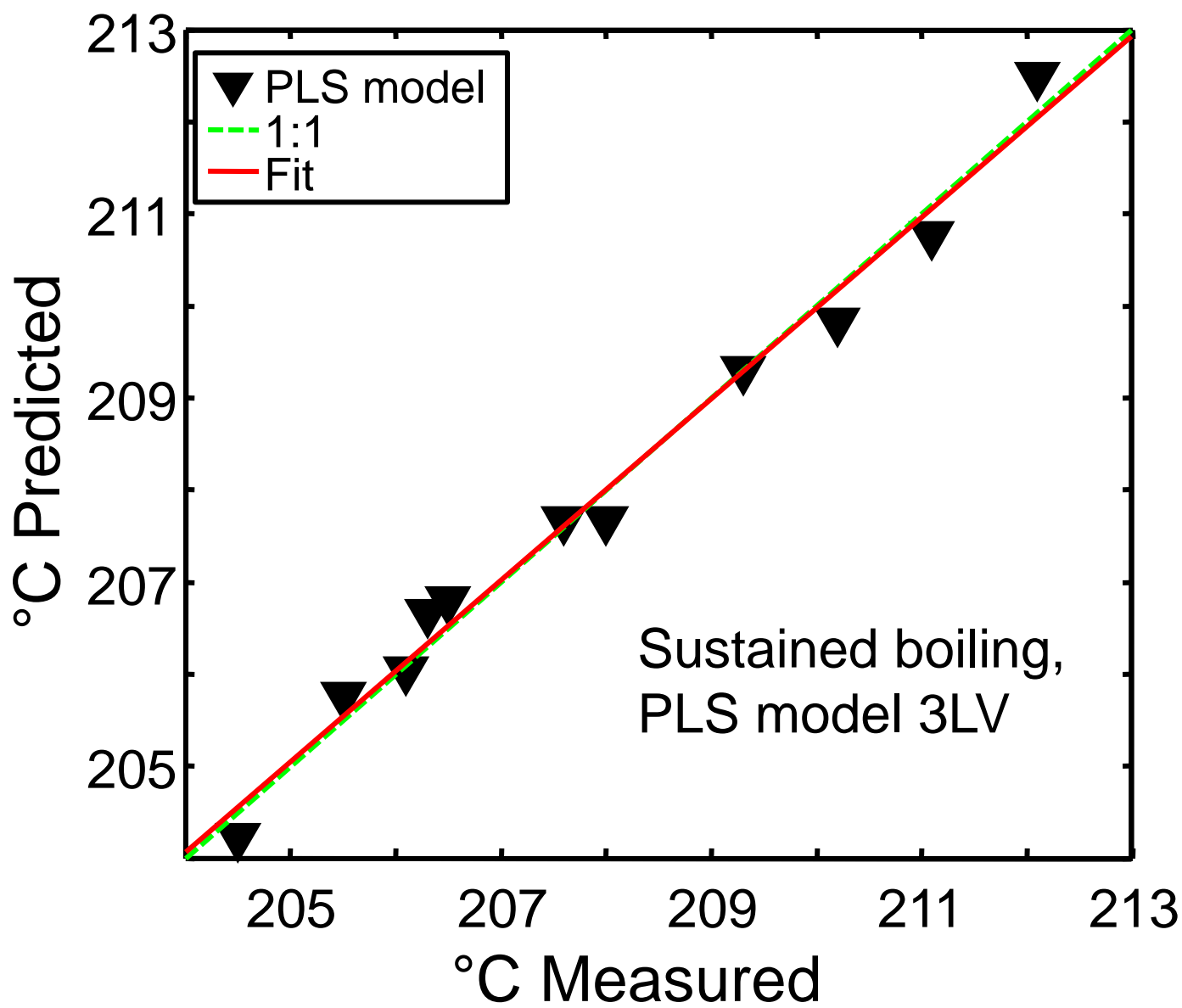


Figure 8C

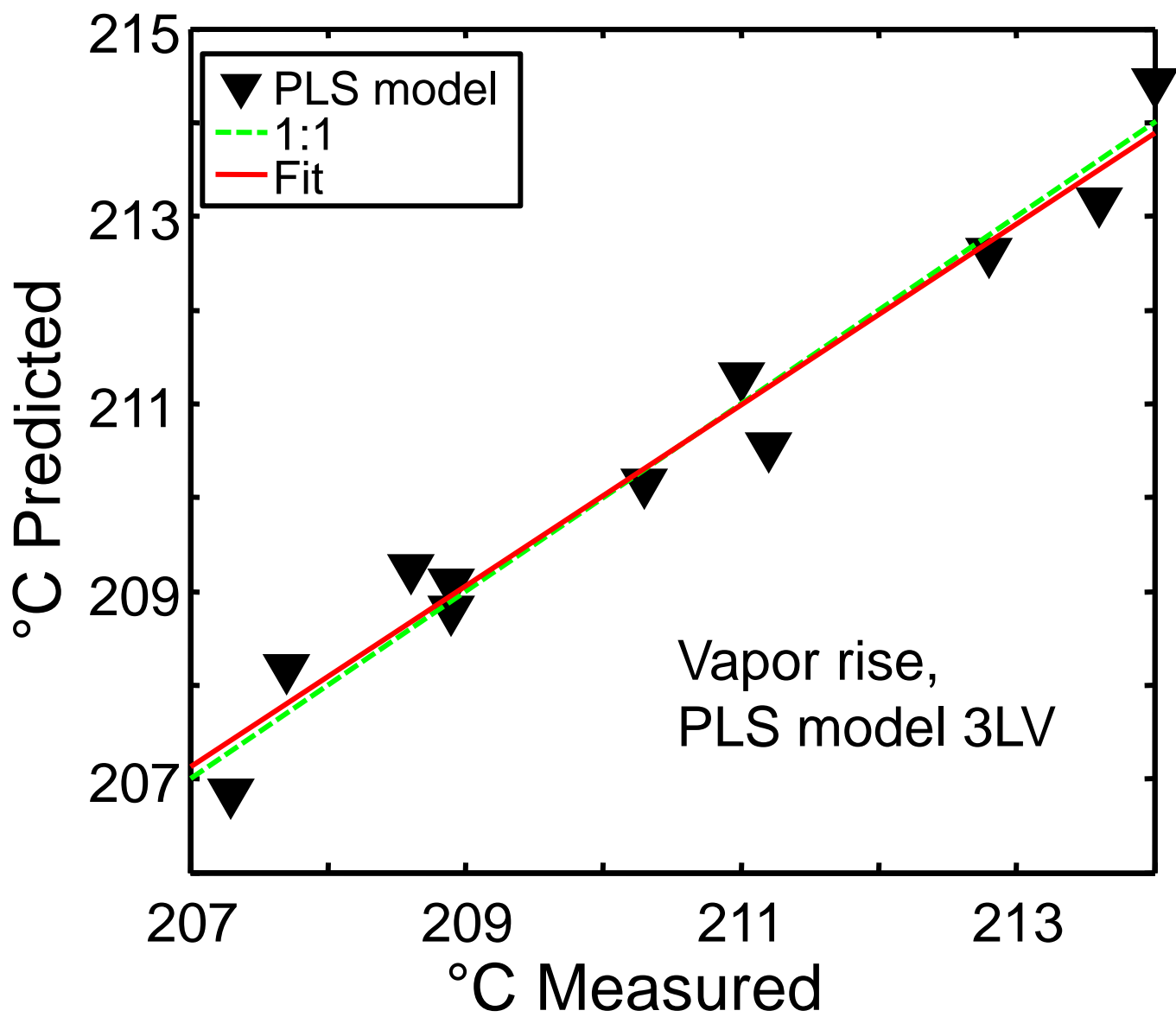


Figure 8D

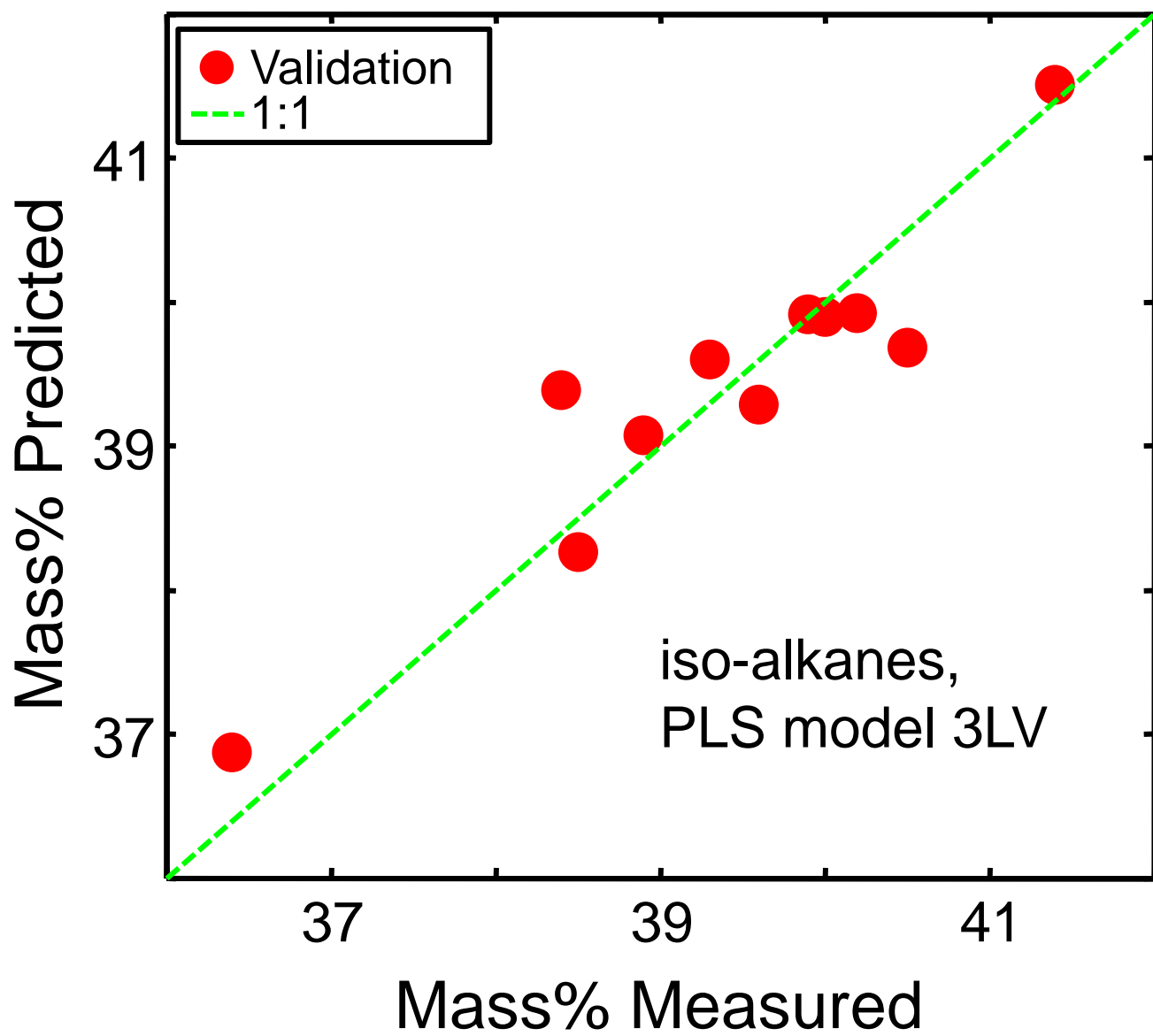


Figure 9A

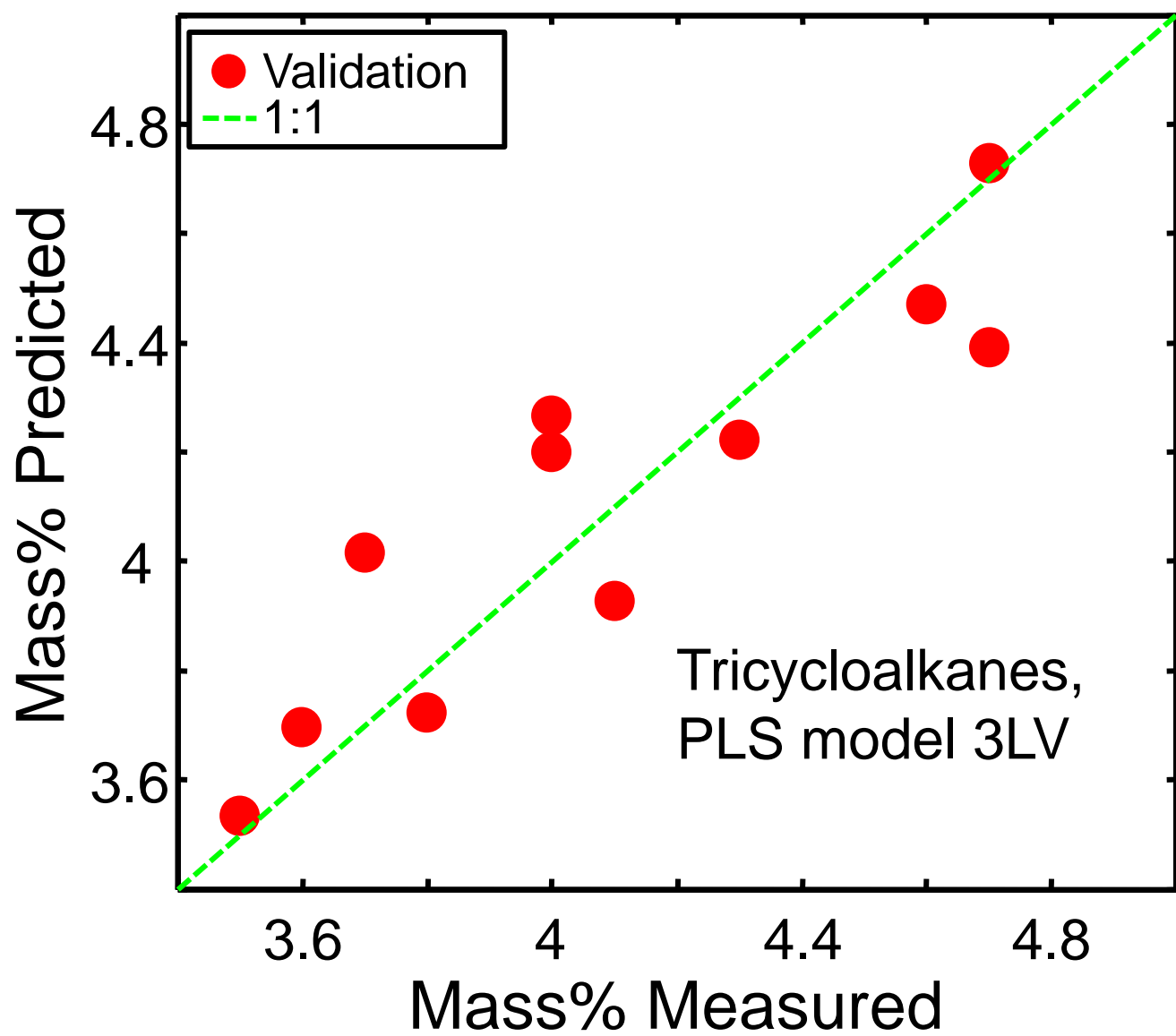


Figure 9B

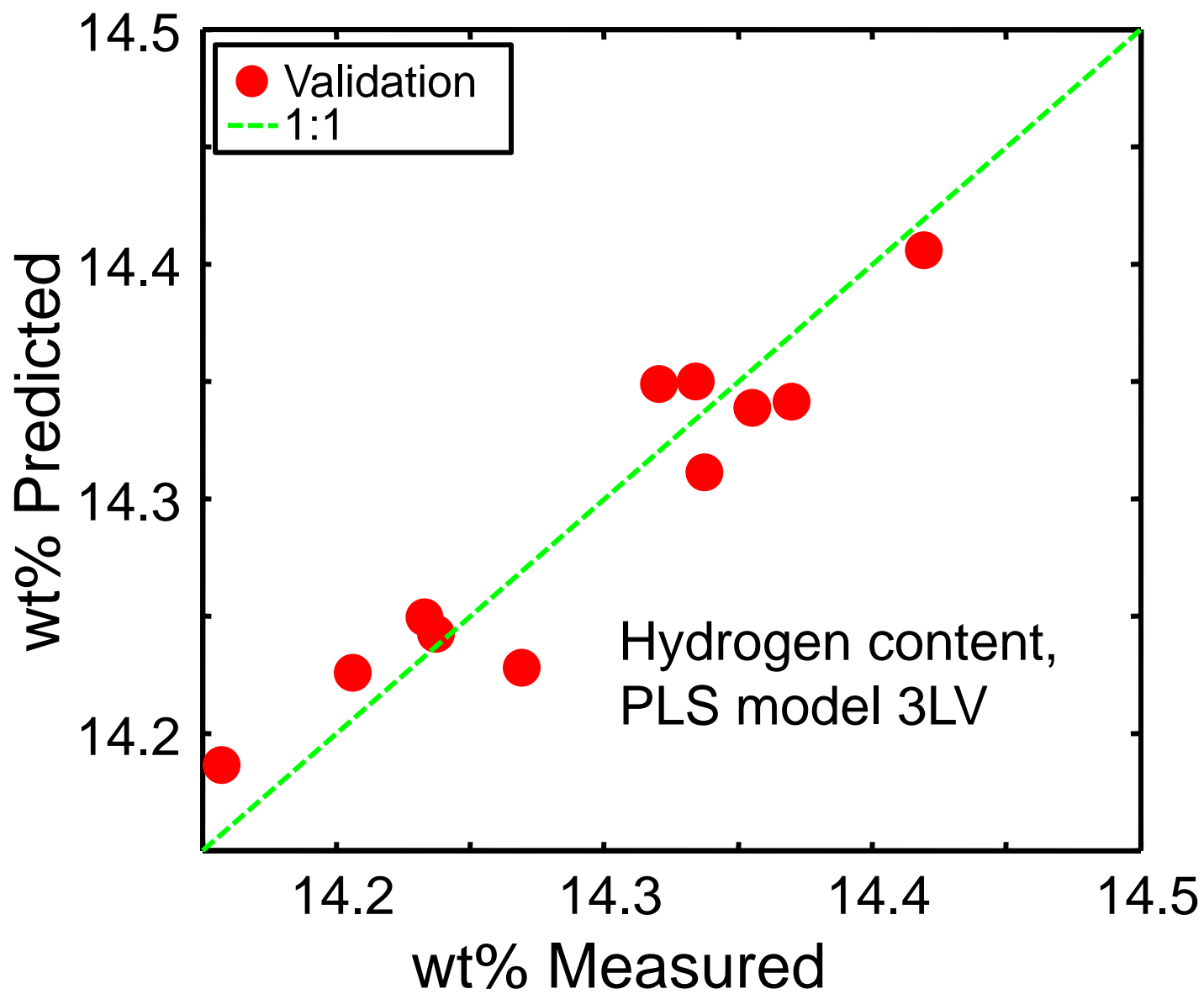


Figure 9C

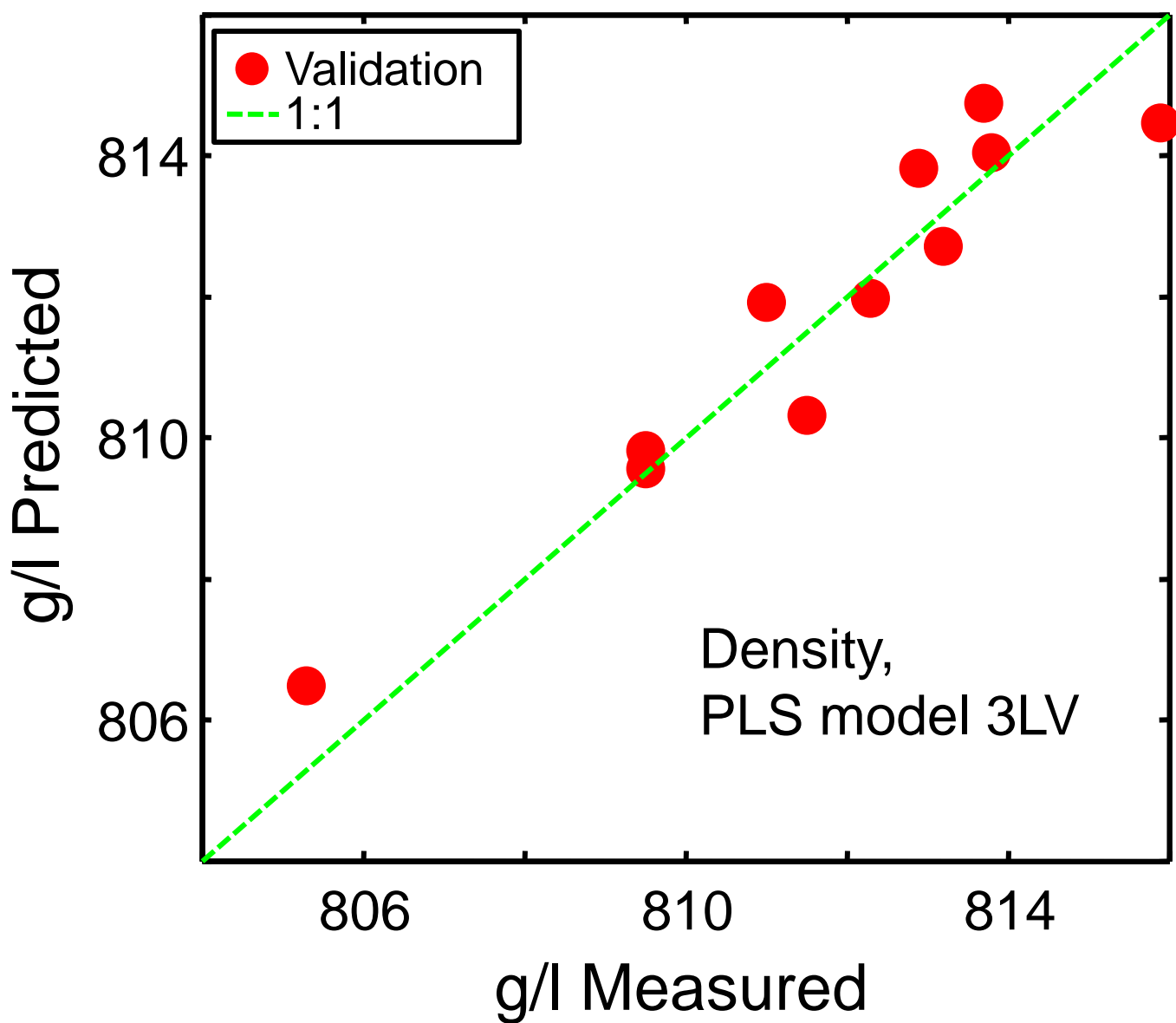


Figure 9D